DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 022 484 52 . LI 000 364

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: TRENDS, PROBLEMS AND RECOMMENDATIONS. A REPORT PREPARED FOR THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON LIBRARIES.

National Advisory Commission on Libraries, Washington, D.C.; Nelson Associates, Inc., New York, N.Y.

Spons Agency-Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.

Bureau No-BR-7-0961

Pub Date Nov 67

Contract-OEC-2-7-010105-1523

Note-68p.

EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$2.80

Descriptors-ADMINISTRATION, DECENTRALIZED LIBRARY SYSTEMS, DISADVANTAGED GROUPS, EVALUATION, FEDERAL AID, FINANCIAL SUPPORT, LIBRARIES, LIBRARY COOPERATION, LIBRARY RESEARCH, *LIBRARY SERVICES, *LIBRARY SURVEYS, NATIONAL PROGRAMS, PLANNING COMMISSIONS, *PUBLIC LIBRARIES, *SOCIAL CHANGE, USE STUDIES

Objectives of this study were to assess public library history, current status, trends, and problems and to suggest approaches to improvement. Trends indicate a new era of library and information services, making it necessary for librarians to decide whether the public library will be an active or passive institution for public enlightenment and social change. Public librarians are most concerned about improving ways of measuring a library's effectiveness as a social institution, studying the user and non-user, utilizing manpower, financing library service, and organizing and administrating a library. The long range issue is seen as determining and providing the kind of library service needed. The major recommendation is the creation of a national commission to guide research and development for improved library services and to devise a comprehensive national plan for library service. More immediate recommendations involve the areas of: federal appropriations for public libraries, metropolitan libraries, regional reference centers, Library of Congress, federal standards for libraries, service to the disadvantaged, an advisory commission for state libraries, and matching funds. Appended is a chapter on the development of the public library from Elmer Johnson's "A History of Libraries in the Western World" (Scarecrow Press, 1965) and a bibliography of 124 items. (JB)

BR-7-0961
P.A. 52

LI 000 304

ERIC/CLIS

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: TRENDS, PROBLEMS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

ED02248

NELSON ASSOCIATES, INCORPORATED

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: TRENDS, PROBLEMS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A Report Prepared for the National
Advisory Commission on Libraries

Nelson Associates, Incorporated

November 1967

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS [redacted] MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY DR. MELVILLE J. RUGGLES TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE [redacted] OWNER."

This report is submitted solely for the information and benefit of the client to whom it is addressed.

ED022486

The work reported herein was performed
pursuant to a contract with the United States
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Office of Education.

NELSON ASSOCIATES. INCORPORATED • 845 THIRD AVENUE. NEW YORK. N Y 10022 • 212 HA 1-3110

November 15, 1967

Dr. Melville J. Ruggles, Executive Director
National Advisory Commission on Libraries
200 C Street, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20204

Dear Dr. Ruggles:

We are submitting herewith our final report on public libraries for the National Advisory Commission on Libraries. We are pleased to have been associated with the important undertaking in which the Commission is engaged and hope that the material contained in this document - along with our reports on state, school and undergraduate and junior college libraries - will enhance its present deliberations and, thereby, the cause of library and information service in the future.

Very truly yours,

NELSON ASSOCIATES, INC.

MANAGEMENT CONSULTANTS • CABLE ADDRESS NELSONCONS • BRANCH OFFICE WASHINGTON. D C

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

FOR THE STUDY OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Meredith Bloss
Librarian
New Haven Free Public Library
New Haven, Connecticut

Mrs. Lillian M. Bradshaw
Director
Dallas Public Library
Dallas, Texas

James E. Bryan
Director
Newark Public Library
Newark, New Jersey

William Chait
Director
Dayton and Montgomery County
Public Library
Dayton, Ohio

Harold L. Hamill
City Librarian
Los Angeles Public Library
Los Angeles, California

Gene Martin
Director
Daniel Boone Regional Library
Columbia, Missouri

David Marshall Stewart
Chief Librarian
Public Library of Nashville and
Davidson County
Nashville, Tennessee

Nelson Associates wishes to acknowledge the guidance, assistance and encouragement that was so generously extended by the members of the Advisory Committee throughout the course of the study.

All of the Committee members have endorsed this report.

S. Gilbert Prentiss, former State Librarian of New York, also provided excellent advice as counselor for this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

PREFACE i

Chapter I TRENDS AFFECTING THE PUBLIC LIBRARY'S GOALS AND FUNCTIONS 1

Population Trends 2

Trend Toward Information Systems 4

Growing Reference Demands 6

Declining Circulation Demands 8

Growing Non-Book Service 9

Trends in School-Public Library Relations 11

Trend Implications 12

Chapter II TRENDS AND PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZATION, FINANCE, PERSONNEL, RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT 17

Structure and Organization 17

  Trends in Library Systems 17

  Trends in Library Government 21

Finance 21

  Trends in Tax Revenues 21

  Trends in Library Costs 22

  Special Metropolitan Library Problems 24

Personnel 25

Research and Measurement 29

Chapter III LEGISLATIVE PROPOSALS 31

Appendix A BACKGROUND AND HISTORY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT 34

Summary 34

Appendix B SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY 52

Preface

This report concludes a study undertaken for the National Advisory Commission on Libraries in the summer and fall of 1967 aimed at evaluating the role, status and needs of public libraries in the United States. The scope of this survey did not extend to the conduct of original research. Rather, the objectives were to assess the recent history and current status of public libraries, to describe trends in their development, to identify problems they face and to consider possible future directions they might take. From the outset it was understood that this document should give particular attention to the outlining of alternative approaches to the solution of major problems identified. Accordingly, these alternatives have been placed within the framework of public policy in order to provide a basis for deliberation and choice by the Commission.

STUDY METHODS

The views presented in the remaining sections of this report grew out of conferences with the Advisory Committee; a study of the literature on public libraries; and, conferences with staff of the Division of Library Services, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and with the staff of the Washington Office of the American Library Association.

Chapter I

TRENDS AFFECTING THE PUBLIC LIBRARY'S GOALS AND FUNCTIONS

The public library derives its existence from the sources of a democratic society - a belief in the dignity of the individual and his right to fulfill himself; a belief in citizen participation at all levels of government and citizen responsibility for community improvement. Individuals with inquiring minds need a sympathetic institution to guard and serve their free, uninhibited quests. Active citizens need a dynamic library which will keep them informed on the major problems of the day and have ready for their use materials directed toward group interests.

In the great majority of instances, the public library discharges its obligations to the individuals and groups within society by serving those who come to be served. Although it often makes strenuous efforts to find out who its users are so that it might better meet their demands and although it worries about the non-user, its limited resources and/or its orientation prevent it from doing much more than provide for the activity inside its doors. Frequently, this activity can be traced to the public library's long-standing role as the substitute for inadequate or non-existent school, junior college and college libraries.

Historically, local and regional library service - to the extent it was available - was synonymous with public library service. Since the early Nineteen Fifties, however, the changes in American life which had begun after World War II have created new dimensions, indeed an entirely new character, in the country's library needs. The requirements of today's society have made the traditional pattern of library service, which depended so essentially on the local public library standing alone, obsolete. The energies of the library profession are increasingly aimed at "networks," "systems," "cooperation," "coordination" - at planned library service in the community, area, state, region and nation.

What is the appropriate role and function of the institution referred to as the public library in tomorrow's informational systems? What effect will the development of more adequate school, junior college and college libraries, as well as more dynamic state libraries, have on the services of public libraries? Given the many problem areas that need attention, how should the urban public library administrator apportion his library's limited resources? What are the responsibilities of each kind of library - public, school, academic, special and state - in providing citizens with full library service? Because they serve all clienteles, public librarians are in a unique position to assume the leadership role in seeking answers to these difficult questions insofar as they affect the future of the public library in a program of planned library service.

If public librarians are to chart the course of their institutions in the years ahead, they must be aware of and respond to the internal and external trends affecting their libraries. These trends offer good insights into the dimensions of the new order for library and information services.

POPULATION TRENDS[1]

Between 1790 and 1950 the population doubled five times: it took 25 years the first three times, the fourth time it took 35 years, and the fifth time it took 50 years. Population projections in 1930 estimated a stable figure of about 165 million by the end of this century. But unexpectedly high birth rates during the Second World War and the economic boom necessitated drastic revisions of these estimates. By 1975, the population will be between 207 and 228 million, depending on birth rates. In the years ahead, libraries must be prepared to serve an increase of 30 million people every decade.

Not only is the population continuing to grow, it is continuing to move. In 1900, the Standard Metropolitan Areas in the United States contained less than one-third of the population. By 1950, 57 percent of the population lived in metropolitan areas. In the first half of this century, while the total U.S. population doubled, metropolitan areas increased three and one-half times. Between 1900 and 1950, metropolitan areas absorbed 73 percent of the total population increase. Between 1940 and 1950 they absorbed 81 percent, and between 1950 and 1960 they absorbed 97 percent of the total population increase. As a result, by 1970 the Standard Metropolitan Areas will hold two-thirds of the American people.

It is apparent, moreover, that some parts of the metropolitan areas are growing more rapidly than others. Between 1900 and 1950 the growth ratio of outlying rings to the central city was 1.33 to 1. Between 1940 and 1950 the ratio was 2.5 to 1. From 1950 to 1955 the ratio leaped to 7 to 1. Assuming a population increase of 60 million in metropolitan United States between 1950 and 1975, this means increases of about 50 million in the suburbs and 10 million in the central cities.

A significant feature of this movement is the change in the ethnic composition of the central cities. The Negro population is now about 10 percent of the U.S. total. In 1860, 92 percent of the Negroes lived in the South and in 1910, still 89 percent lived there. By 1975, however, the North and West will have as many Negroes as the South and over half of the Negroes remaining in the South will live in urban areas; one-third to one-half of the great city populations will be Negro; and, one-fifth to one-third of the population in Standard Metropolitan areas will be Negro. Three factors relating to these changes in ethnic composition increase their impact. First, the Negro population has tended to concentrate in relatively few areas. In 1960, 6.9 million of the 18.8 million Negroes lived in New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, Los Angeles, St. Louis, Cleveland, San Francisco, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Washington, Baltimore, New Orleans, Houston, Atlanta, Memphis, Dallas and San Antonio. Second, the educational level of the migrants into these cities has been low. As recently as 1950, the average Negro in the rural south was functionally illiterate - that is, he had less than five years of formal education. To reach the current educational level of the urban white population he would require six additional years of schooling. Third, 25 percent of the Negro population in 1963 was unemployed, 60 percent had incomes of less than $3,000 and 75 percent had incomes of less than $4,000. This same situation is repeated on a smaller scale among Indian and Spanish-speaking minorities.

---

[1] The information in this section is derived primarily from Philip Hauser's and Martin Taitel's chapter on "Population Trends - Prologue to Library Development" in Frank Schick's The Future of Library Service. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science. 1962. pp. 13-73.

A final important characteristic of the population trends is the change in age pattern. Persons over 65 accounted for 6 percent of the total population in 1960. Estimates are that the population of persons over 65 will increase 50 percent between 1960 and 1980. In the Fifties, the number of youngsters 5 to 13 years of age increased by 45 percent and high school age children increased by 35 percent. This means that by 1980 there will be an explosive expansion of the 18 to 29 year old age group. That increase will be 80 percent. In 1800, the average American was 16 years old; in 1950, he was over 30; but in 1960, he was 29.5 years old. Thus, although the population is growing older, the high birth rates in the Fifties have produced a younger population.

These developments put great pressure on elementary schools in the Fifties and on high schools, colleges and professional schools in the Sixties. Between 1960 and 1980, the total student enrollment will increase 52 percent, about the same rate which occurred in the decade of the Fifties.

These enrollment projections also suggest that the educational level of the population has risen. In 1940, the average person of 25 years and over had completed elementary school. In 1950, he had completed 9.3 years of education and in 1960, about 11 years. By 1970, therefore, the average American 25 and over will be a high school graduate. By 1980, the number of college graduates will have increased 85 percent over the 1960 level.

What are the implications of these population trends for public library service? There appear to be five major considerations:

1. The group which has traditionally been the heaviest user of the library - students - will increase in number by 50 percent between 1960 and 1980.

2. Similarly, the population of persons over 65 will increase 50 percent between 1960 and 1980.

3. The population as a whole will be better educated. The rising educational level, along with a stress on individual inquiry, stimulates demand for reference services in the public library.

4. The country's cities have experienced a movement of the middle class out of their centers. Although they continue to be the focus of interest of many urban libraries, these people took their wealth and their habit of using the library to the suburbs. This movement has precipitated a financial crisis for the center city and its library.

5. Large numbers of poor, under-educated Negroes and Spanish speaking people have replaced the middle class white population in the central cities. Their presence raises legitimate questions regarding the appropriateness of conventional library services, particularly in ghetto communities.

Given these considerations, and the multitude of opportunities and problems they suggest for the future of library service in general, what avenues should public librarians follow?

TREND TOWARD INFORMATION SYSTEMS

These raw population figures alone should give pause to library planners. But there are other trends which also have a heavy bearing on library functions. One is the impact of technology on the printed word, particularly scientific and technical material.

In 1963 there were 75,000 science and technical publications in sixty-five languages serviced by three thousand journals which printed primarily abstracts.[2] Every year the United States Government issues 100,000 reports, major American technical journals publish about 450,000 papers and, in mathematics alone, 100,000 pages of material are produced. How to select, store, search, correlate and retrieve this information for scientists and technicians has become a major problem.

A corresponding problem relates to the information needs of managers and administrators. As business and government organizations have become more complex, their component units have become more autonomous since no central authority is able to control them tightly. Top executives are, more often than not, generalists who rely increasingly on written information in making their decisions. How to insure that the desired piece of information is readily available upon request is a matter of great concern.

---

[2] Knox, William T. "National Information Networks and Special Libraries." Special Libraries. November, 1966. pp. 627-30.

Scientists, technicians, managers and administrators alike are less interested in having the documents themselves than in having the information which is in the documents organized in a manner which helps them solve particular problems. Since the traditional practices common to conventional libraries have not always been adaptable to their needs, these users have encouraged and participated in the creation of information centers - many of them computerized - outside library boundaries. It is a fast-growing development which has yet to be reconciled with librarianship.

Francis Keppel, former United States Commissioner of Education, warned at the 1964 ALA Conference in St. Louis that "unless librarians maintain their position as organizers and retrievers of information, they may well wind up a vanishing breed while another species ascends the library ladder." Ralph Parker, Dean of the School of Library Science at the University of Missouri, describes the issues more thoroughly.

> "During the past few years nonlibrarians interested in documentation and information science have implicitly assumed that the retrievel of information has not been the prime function of librarians for centuries. Although the assumption is patently false, librarians themselves have been, to a large degree, responsible for the misrepresentation. On the one hand, they have been too satisfied with the provisions which have been made by libraries cast in the nineteenth-century mold to meet the needs of scholars and of general library users in the twentieth century. On the other hand, they have not been willing to understand the gropings of the nonlibrarian or to contribute in harnessing the new technology to meet the bibliographical and informational needs of our society. By so doing, they have given the impression to the outsider that librarianship has nothing to offer.
>
> "If librarianship is to survive, significant research must be undertaken in two rather distinct but related areas. One is in the field of subject representation, and the other is in the role of the library in interpretation and evaluation of the information it collects and disseminates.
>
> "In the matter of subject representation, our previous approach has been purely pragmatic. We have thought in terms of developing classification systems and subject heading lists without first really understanding the relationships among the concepts which we must represent. There is need to look deeply into the nature of knowledge itself; to identify basic concepts, if such exist. The work done at Western Reserve University, for example, made a start toward the reexamination of the problems of subject representation, but it fell into the same trap into which librarians

> have traditionally fallen. The semantic factors were arbitrarily selected rather than identified on the basis of valid criteria.
>
> "The time necessary for establishing the basic building blocks for the adequate indexing of a body of knowledge is large indeed. It cannot be done in one year in one institution and probably not in five years even with total emphasis by all library schools. But it must be done, and the work must include Ivory Tower thinking, philosophical exploration, and linguistic analysis. It must include the study of linear classification systems, coordinate systems, syntactical systems, generic systems, and any creative new systems.
>
> "Librarians have been passive toward the information which they handle. This has often been justified as opposition to censorship, but quite frequently the attitude has only emphasized the custodial role of the librarian. In times past, the paucity of resources of libraries caused little problem of selecting materials for the user at the time of his inquiry. But as the resources of libraries become larger and the amounts published on specific topics may well inundate the user, the presentation of a list of citations in the form of a card catalog or a printed bibliography, or perhaps a stack of books themselves, no longer performs the complete function expected of the library. Because of this failure, technical information centers are arising as independent and often competing agencies. Research into the most effective organizational structure which can provide for the acquisition, the organization, and the retrievel of informational sources, and for the effective dissemination of information is required. This research should include educational requirements of the librarians and information specialists which will be needed in the organizations which evolve."[3]

GROWING REFERENCE DEMANDS

Even within the traditional boundaries of library service, the demand for information is increasing. Librarians are now in the process of broadening their role to make available information stored in many forms and in many places. These developments alone would ultimately have produced a new dimension of cooperative library service. What effect do these developments have on the preparation of a national plan for library service aimed at the entire spectrum of the population's requirements for information?

---

[3] Parker, Ralph. "Significant Research: The Survival of Librarianship," Wilson Library Bulletin. May, 1967. pp. 919-920.

The problems of getting information or materials from storage places to users are legal, financial and physical. In the April 15, 1967 issue of the Library Journal, developments in reference services were summarized. Portions of that material appear below.

> "The most striking development in solving the physical problem is the proliferation of experiments with TWX (teletype) equipment to transmit information and to expedite traditional interlibrary loan transactions... The telephone, in similar fashion, began to realize its potential to libraries once the problem of paying for service was worked out, as it has been variously with the use of phone credit cards and state or federal subsidy... Facsimile transmission is getting a thorough shakedown trial on both coasts...
>
> "Both federal and state funds are making it possible to tackle serious gaps in resources at the level of the individual community, at the area center level often served by a county library or system headquarters and at the central resource center, which may be a metropolitan library, a state library or some combination of these...
>
> "Cooperation, between different types of libraries and between libraries of different political jurisdictions, has subsisted - barely - through archaic courtesies. Now, well in advance of the formally structured and centrally financed statewide cooperative plans envisioned by Title III of LSCA, there is cooperative action all over the map. It varies greatly, of course, but almost every variety of cooperation is seemingly being tried somewhere...
>
> "Cooperation across state and even national boundaries is coming on fast. The development of bibliographical resources is a key element in tapping distant reference potential: book catalogs are circumventing the massive problem of maintaining union catalogs, which once seemed so essential...
>
> "The computers, it is clear, have hardly learned to paste pockets, type library cards and stamp out books, and now they are being edged into reference work despite all the dismayed statements of recent disillusion. There is as yet nothing like information retrievel operative but we are approaching it on many fronts. Besides already well publicized projects such as MEDLARS and INTREX, a unique 'Community Information Service' is being created at Columbus, Ohio, which will be like the little file of cards on the home town librarian's desk where she notes the garden club meetings - only this computer file will be about a million times as big...

> "Reference information about LC's more than 3000 manuscript collections is now automated; the Detroit Public Library has received $75,000 to study the possibility of using the machine for information retrievel; and in North Carolina a conference last month took up 'The Computer and Research in the Humanities.' New York has contracted for a system design which will maintain a research library catalog in machine form and print that catalog in either book or card format. It is also automating the serials section of the state library...
>
> "There are signs that in spite of the rural-suburban orientation of state agencies and many early LSCA projects, the heavy money is going to be spent in the development of reference and research services. Business and industry and the war machine demand it; if it please God and the National Advisory Commission - which we like to think is working for Him and not the competition - the public, from school child to college student to truckdriver will also have access to the mechanisms of information transmission."[4]

DECLINING CIRCULATION DEMANDS

While the trend is up for reference services, the trend is down for circulation services. Library Journal made a survey in its September 1, 1966 issue of this fairly recent phenomena. The editor, Eric Moon, found that until the early 1960's circulation climbed steadily. Since then, the pattern has been one of declining volume, particularly in urban libraries. Main and central libraries are losing circulation faster than branches but city libraries having cooperative agreements with county or suburban libraries showed an increase. In libraries which registered gains, juvenile circulation still declined or the increases resulted from the opening of new buildings or the combination of city and county services. Moon concludes, therefore, that even the increases could not really be considered as positive evidence of circulation growth.

Respondents to Moon's questionnaire gave a variety of reasons for the decline. But leading all others in frequency was the improvement of school libraries as a result of substantial federal funds. Elementary school libraries may even account for the loss in adult circulation, since parents do not come as regularly when the library visit is not stimulated by the school needs of their children. The school library hours also affect student use of the public library. So may the nature of the assignments given to students. However, in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, a community which has no elementary school libraries, juvenile circulation is declining nevertheless. The director of the public library suggests that the reason for the decline may be traced to a movement away from the "frantic grade school type of 'research' of recents years."

---

[4] "A Reference Roundup." Library Journal. April 15, 1967. pp. 1582-1585.

Besides the influence of improved schools and changing educational methods, librarians mentioned several other possible causes: full employment hence less leisure time, the influx of non-readers into the cities, more use of materials inside the library, parking difficulties, the use of paperbacks for recreational and school use, the lag in branch libraries development and the draining away of all residents in center city areas as a result of urban renewal programs. While many librarians wondered if the public library was keeping abreast of and was in harmony with external social changes, a few others thought declining circulation could be caused by internal library practices and problems - such as a shortage of librarians, poor quality in fiction selection, higher fines and do-it-yourself charge out procedures.

None of the reasons advanced by librarians in response to Moon's questionnaire have been tested, but there was almost universal agreement among those responding that circulation was declining and would continue to do so. What effect does this have on plans for integrated library services?

GROWING NON-BOOK SERVICE

Libraries have always had story hours, book discussion groups and film shows to stimulate an interest in reading, but it was not until the passage of federal economic opportunity legislation that non-book service took new directions. The January, 1966 School Library Journal's special issue on anti-poverty programs describes some of the ensuing developments.

The Boston Public Library decided that the link between the middle class library and the less than middle class young people outside could be achieved by providing the information that every young person needs to know. The library now conducts a sex education program which supplies reading material to young people's groups, to homes for unwed mothers and delinquent girls and to mothers whose children attend the libraries' story hours. New Haven's three Library Neighborhood Centers send storytellers onto the streets to bring books to children wherever they find them. The Centers also maintain art clubs, reading tutorials, puppet clubs, dance and folk singing classes and Spanish groups, among others. Of these programs, some are handled by professional librarians, some by volunteers and staff members of other agencies. Wisconsin librarians are promoting literacy courses for migrant mothers and providing day care services while they learn. The Vernon Branch of the Los Angeles system has a continuous series of cultural programs - film shows, jazz evenings, group visits to other cultural institutions, family nights and slide lectures. The Suffolk Cooperative Library System in New York has worked with the Youth Corps in providing library jobs for the Corpsmen.

The National Book Committee summarizes the success of these new enterprises to attract the under-educated, non-user as follows:

> "Library services and programs which have won response from poor neighborhoods are characterized by aggressive, inventive highly flexible and personalized approaches to individuals within the disadvantaged community. The libraries which succeeded in reaching non-users were those which related books and other media, services and materials to real life situations and needs within the experience of individuals in the community served. Such libraries recognized that effective service requires community-directed action as an agency that is ready and eager to reshape its program to the needs of the clients, rather than trying to fit the clients into existing program patterns."[5]

Not every librarian believes that these programs will turn non-readers into readers but many are coming to believe that libraries may have to use new methods to fulfill their traditional roles as the purveyors of knowledge, promoters of thought and suppliers of information.

Richard Moses, who is working with the disadvantaged in Rochester, describes the new approach as follows: "What we're really interested in doing is exposing these kids to new experiences, new ideas, new ways of thinking. I don't care how this comes about. Traveling, talking, reading, watching films - it makes no difference. Reading is, after all, not an end in itself but only a means of access to more and more of life's offerings. Can't films accomplish the same thing? They are legitimate library fare ... Our goal is not only wider reading but wider thinking. As librarians we are custodians and purveyors of the world's thought. We store it, we make it available. What does it matter in which form we offer it?"[6]

To many librarians, form is a matter of much importance. They argue that the library's first job is to promote the use of books and their contents. While they agree that the library must help all people get the information and ideas they need for a useful and fruitful life, they feel the library is best suited to provide this help through books. The use of non-book services and activities needs to be given considerably greater emphasis in any plan for full library service.

---

[5] Neighborhood Library Centers and Services. A study by the National Book Committee for the Office of Economic Opportunity. New York: National Book Committee. 1967. p. 4.

[6] "Just Show the Movies - Never Mind the Books." ALA Bulletin. January, 1965. pp. 58-60.

TRENDS IN SCHOOL-PUBLIC LIBRARY RELATIONS

A "system" commonly refers to a grouping of public libraries rather than the systematic organization of all kinds of libraries to provide adequate service for all the people. Lack of coordination has caused the most serious problem in school and public library relationships.

Public libraries often find they are expected to provide service for school children without being fully apprised of the volume and kind of services desired. When libraries are thus unprepared, students feel frustrated that they cannot get the material they want when they want it. The ALA conference in 1963 on student use of the library put the dimensions of the problem this way: 10,000,000 students attend high schools without a central library; 66 percent of all elementary schools lack libraries; over 75 percent of the junior college libraries are below standard and one-half of the four year college libraries are below standard. Since that date, many new school libraries have been established and many college libraries have improved their holdings. But for the most part, the dimensions of the problem remain at about the same magnitude.

In addition, teaching methods have changed drastically over the last ten years. Child growth and development is now seen as passing through recognizable stages leading toward physical, mental and emotional maturity. Children are individuals whose needs and abilities vary at each stage of their development. Educational methods, therefore, have come to emphasize individualized instruction for the normal child and special instruction for the physically and mentally handicapped. The debate about how people learn has only just begun but experiments have already proven the value of audio-visual materials, teaching machines and television. The demand for new teaching aids has led the innovative Wayne County (Michigan) Public Library to create an educational materials center. It is open only to teachers and provides help in selecting and evaluating audio-visual materials.

Furthermore, the teaching profession's drive for educational excellence has encouraged the development of team teaching, an expanded elementary school curriculum, more demanding secondary school research assignments, longer school days and school years, increased emphasis on quality education and upon programs for identifying and developing talent, more flexible schedules and varying class sizes. Colleges and universities now stress individual research and collateral reading, honors courses and tutorials. These educational innovations account in large measure for the growing student pressure on public libraries.

In one of the few detailed studies of student use of public libraries, the Deiches study for the Enoch Pratt Library in Baltimore, it was found that school libraries supplied only one-third of the needs of their students. Teachers assumed access for their students to the public library's extensive subject periodical collections because the school library could not afford them. The complaints by public librarians against students and schools is long. But they may be summarized as the public librarians' frustration and harassment in trying to serve too many students with too few books without prior consultation or warning. While this complaint is beamed primarily at secondary school students, it is no less true of college and elementary school students and the institutions they attend.

Confusion arises because the functions of the public library and school and college libraries overlap. The task, then, is for the several libraries to coordinate their efforts so that each institution, in its materials and services, complements the other.

A number of procedures are being used to accomplish this objective:

1. Regular meetings between school and public librarians to discuss curriculum changes, scheduling of student reference and book review assignments, book selection, policies on alternative books should the one the student requests be missing from the public library shelves, coordinating the purchase of less used books to avoid duplications, special assignments for remedial or enrichment reading.

2. Automatic procedures for exchanging purchase lists, course bulletins, reading lists, theme assignments, film lists.

3. Cooperative agreements in sharing film collections and audio-visual materials, and designating the public library as the repository for all back issue periodicals. Agreements are also being worked out which permit public libraries to refer certain users to school and college libraries with the full confidence that they will receive service equal to that given any student.

What is evolving from these practices is a more efficient use of the community's library resources and hence more value for the library dollar. With growing financial pressures, the trend toward cooperative efforts among all the community's libraries must be accelerated and encouraged.

TREND IMPLICATIONS

Clearly, we are entering a new era of library and information services. What then are the implications of these developments on the role and function of the public library? How can it lead its sister institutions in meeting the diverse and complex needs of individuals and groups?

In the Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, Gerald Johnson broadly describes the function of the public library as:

> "...the function of an open door. The public library is a way of escape from the narrow area of our individual

> lives into the field, finite, no doubt but unbounded, of the wisdom and experience of all mankind....The key to this broader world is the possession of books, but if the door stands wide open there is no need of a key. It is the business of the public librarian to keep the door open and to see that no stumbling block lies in the way of those who would enter....We cannot become a nation of philosophers; but we can become a nation aware of the existence of philosophy and respectful of its findings. Indeed, we face the grim necessity of becoming just that, or of failing in our great task of world leadership.
>
> "This implies the necessity of making access to the truth easy and rapid for anyone who seeks it. For the overwhelming majority the quickest and easiest access to the world's best thought is through the public library. To maintain this source of information open to all and unpolluted by any self-seeking interest is a task important beyond all computation, not to ourselves alone but the world."

Chapter II of the Minimum Standards goes on to detail the functions of the public library.

> "The books and other resources of the library constitute the road by which each individual can escape from his limitations; thus selection of needed materials is a basic function of the public library. In making its choices from the vast array of available material, the public library must be guided not only by the demands of those who use the library constantly; it must also be aware of unspoken needs within the community if it is to serve effectively as an open door to 'the wisdom and experience of all mankind.'
>
> "Its materials are provided:
>
> "To facilitate informal self education of all people in the community;
> "To enrich and further develop the subjects on which individuals are undertaking formal education;
> "To meet the informational needs of all;
> "To support the educational, civic and cultural activities of groups and organizations;
> "To encourage wholesome recreation and constructive use of leisure time.

> "Provision of materials means more than occasional availability. It means a supply sufficient to make the library a dependable source for most people most of the time. In addition to books, the public library selects and provides pamphlets, documents and other non-book sources in printed form and films, tapes, discs and other non-print stores of knowledge and opinion.
>
> "Providing materials is only the first step. The second basic function - that which differentiates a library from a mere collection of books and other materials - is service, encompassing:
>
> > "The organization of material to make it easily accessible to potential users;
> > "Lending procedures to ensure that materials may be used at the time and place desired by the public;
> > "Guidance to assist the user to find what he wishes, either in the material immediately at hand or in whatever library may possess it;
> > "A program of public information to make its resources not only available but eagerly sought by its community.
>
> "In the last analysis, service, collection of books, the staff and the physical environment recommended in this statement of standards have meaning only as they reach all the people. It is to be expressly understood that each principle and standard applies to all ages and all groups in the community and that a standard is not achieved if its provisions are met for one part of the population but not for the other. The library which serves only the literate who request service is failing to meet its responsibilities just as surely as the one which provides too few books or makes do with ill trained staff."[7]

The need for library service is too great and the resources too limited to permit even the suspicion of passivity in a description of the public library's role in the community. On the contrary, the public library must take advantage of its unique and historical position by initiating and leading the full development of library services in each community. Public libraries must spark the movement to coordinate all local library services so that school, academic, special and public library facilities complement rather than compete with each other.

---

[7] Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966. Chicago: American Library Association. 1967. pp. 8-10.

As school and college libraries become better able to serve the immediate needs of their own clientele, public libraries must be prepared to stress functions which may now be only marginal activities. More attention should be given to the pre-school child, the physically and mentally handicapped and the elderly. But most especially, and in keeping with the notion that they are "the people's university," public libraries should devote more energy toward actively educating the population.

Quite obviously, the public library must continue to facilitate the on-going education of its "regular" patrons. Moreover, the public library is the library with responsibility for developing meaningful service to the disadvantaged adult. Literacy activities offer the most promising program opportunities. The United States Office of Education estimates that there are 25 million adults over 18 years of age who are functionally illiterate. Many librarians have been overly cautious in developing services for this group. However, the ALA's study of services to adult illiterates cites a number of worthy experiments in the field.[8] These should be reviewed by public librarians. Only a master of reading by the functionally illiterate will free him from the limitations which inhibit his social and vocational development. Similarly, public libraries need to face their responsibilities in serving the staff and residents of institutions in the community - prisons, homes for the aged, mental hospitals and convalescent homes.

The public library must also develop its capabilities as the community reference and information center. This might entail alterations in the traditional functions of storing and organizing recorded knowledge in order to emphasize new ways of retrieving and disseminating information. Printed catalogs of say 100,000 books might be distributed free to every household and become as common as the Sears Roebuck catalog and the telephone book. Books could then be borrowed by mail or phone through the local library or directly from the central reference library. For users requiring correlated information, the local library might be tied into a computer network able to provide prepackaged specialized information. Such a system would analyze and evaluate information, sort, index and abstract it and retrieve it on demand. For the student who needs analytical and descriptive materials, there might be access to deeper subject collections and periodical files. For the under-educated, there could be information on employment, housing, welfare and educational matters. The local library might then be characterized as a bookstore for the recreational reader, reference center to satisfy the most common reference needs and computer terminal or telephone exchange for the more esoteric informational requirements.

---

[8] MacDonald, Bernice. Literacy Activities in Public Libraries: A Report of a Study of Services to Adult Illiterates. Chicago: American Library Association, 1966.

In their development as community reference and information centers, public libraries should greatly expand and improve the informational services they offer to local government and local business. No other public organization covers these needs.

Multi-unit public libraries need to explore new ways of extension services. Some libraries have found that continuous shuttle bus service to a good central library collection results in better service than bringing the library to the neighborhood in a bookmobile or small branch.

The realignment of local library services will require increased coordination between public librarians and school administrators and librarians. There is still a strong undercurrent of distrust between these two groups which presents a serious problem in many states. The proceedings of the ALA conference on student use of libraries held in July 1963 underscored the lack of rapport and cooperation. These circumstances could lead to a waste of resources, financial and otherwise, and might actually retard the development of a viable plan for integrated library service.

Finally, in communities where the public library is virtually the only cultural institution, it might consider expanding another of its traditional roles - that of the transmitter of ideas. It could become the catalyst for the community's cultural life. The public library is a particularly appropriate institution for this role because it has an established line to public funds which should be developed in support of the community's cultural endeavors. But more importantly, the public library, as a defender of intellectual freedom and uncensored inquiry, presents an attractive umbrella for the community players, the artists' league or an art film theatre. In smaller towns, the public library could be the only effective source of diverse opinion and new ideas. Where this is true, even the library's users might be considered culturally deprived and in need of new kinds of opportunities to broaden their intellectual horizons.

Each of these potential roles and functions is really an extension of one or another of the public library's present roles and present activities. None of them presuppose a rejection of the printed word as the library's chief commodity. With the exception of the coordinative role, none of them can be applied equally to all public libraries since resources and requirements differ from community to community. Nonetheless, basic re-evaluations of the kind suggested above seem to be necessary. Within the profession there are unanswered questions about whether the public library should shape demand for its services or simply respond to existing demand; whether the public library should allocate its resources according to its own priorities and goals or leave these decisions to public administrators; and whether the public library should be required to justify its existence or insist that its social worth be taken on faith.

In sum, it is more essential now than perhaps at any previous time for librarians to decide whether the public library as an institution will, in the years ahead, be an active or a passive force for public enlightenment and social change.

Chapter II

TRENDS AND PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZATION, FINANCE, PERSONNEL, RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

There are two main trends affecting the structure and organization of public libraries. By far the most important is the growth of systems and cooperative activities. The other is the growing recognition by librarians and public administrators, that libraries should be an integral part of local government services.

Trends in Library Systems

Years ago public libraries were purely local institutions intended only to serve those within the immediate tax area. County libraries, like town libraries, were an extension of the self-enclosed, self-support idea. But as early as 1935 Carleton Joeckel in Government of American Public Libraries argued for regional libraries with metropolitan central libraries at the core. These regions would be built around the 641 Standard Metropolitan Areas and financed in part by state aid. The National Plan for Public Library Service in 1948 furthered the idea of regional libraries large enough to provide adequate service. A pattern of 1,200 regional units was proposed under a regional government board, with state and federal aid supporting 20 metropolitan and research libraries. In that same year, the Public Library Inquiry also endorsed the regional library idea. But in spite of its popularity, voluntary compliance was limited. New York took the lead in giving statutory recognition to state aid and California first developed new standards of library service which implied cooperative efforts. But in 1956, approximately 27 million people were without local public library service and 90 percent of these were in rural areas. The 1956 Library Services Act was designed to bring service to rural areas of less than 10,000 population. This act was extended in the 1964 Library Services and Construction Act by making grants available to urban libraries and for the construction of library buildings. Between 1956 and 1966 the most popular programs were those aimed at strengthening county and multi-county systems.

One major rationale for systems is the sharing of materials and services which cannot be purchased or provided on site by every community because of cost.

Services commonly provided through systems are interlibrary loan, rotating book collections, centralized film collections, centralized book processing and in some cases book purchasing, reference service, consultants' services and aid in book selection.

New York State is often cited as a model of systems development. Jean Connor, head of the State Library's Division of Library Development, draws a profile of the typical library system in New York as follows:

> "1. It is organized in such a way as to preserve the independence of the member libraries.
>
> "2. There is a regional board of trustees governing the system's cooperative services and providing coordination of library planning on a broad areawide basis.
>
> "3. The system has a headquarters staff, distinct from that of the central library, whose main task is to give supporting services to the member libraries.
>
> "4. The system receives state aid to provide services to the member libraries.
>
> "5. The local or member libraries are locally financed.
>
> "6. The population served by the system usually totals over 300,000.
>
> "7. The system usually serves more than one county.
>
> "8. The system usually has many member libraries; approximate average is thirty.
>
> "9. The system is relatively new; it has been operating only about three years (of the thirty-two medium-sized libraries participating in systems, only five belonged to a system before 1958).
>
> "10. Every system has a central library collection which, if needed, is being built up to adequacy through state book grants."[9] (The central library should contain at least 100,000 adult, non-fiction volumes.)

The New York State Education Department commissioned an evaluation of the state's public library systems between 1963 and 1966.[10] The study concluded that although systematization has advanced library service and that large service areas joined in cooperative arrangements are suited to modern requirements, problems remain in system development. The central library of each system in large measure determines the quality of the system. Many of New York's central libraries pointed out that the services they provided to community libraries cost more than they could bear. From 5 to 20 percent of direct use of most public libraries in systems appeared to be by non-residents with the highest use occurring in the best libraries. The larger libraries, therefore, believe they should be compensated by the state or federal governments.

---

[9] Connor, Jean. "Role of the Medium-Sized Public Library in the 'System' (New York)." The Library Quarterly. January, 1963. p. 118.

[10] The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, Division of Evaluation. Emerging Library Systems: The 1963-66 Evaluation of the New York State Public Library Systems. 1967.

Secondly, the cooperative form of organization offers the greatest degree of flexibility but it has not solved the perennial problem of the independent community library which is still too small. S. Gilbert Prentiss in his review of the study's findings adds further that the state's refusal to renew the charters of these small libraries is not a solution to the problem either.[11] Efforts through in-service training programs to improve the performance of community libraries have not been altogether successful in the cooperative and federated systems. Local staff most in need of training are the very ones who are least likely to take advantage of the opportunities offered through the system. On the other hand, central administrative staff lack adequate management information to improve the system's technical services.

Other data on systems are also contained in a yet unpublished nationwide evaluation of systems sponsored by the Public Library Association.[12] This study identified 491 systems with more than one outlet open at least ten hours a week with paid staff and providing library service across political jurisdictional lines.

Almost two-thirds of these systems serve populations of less than 100,000; more than one-half serve populations of less than 50,000; and almost 20 percent serve populations of under 25,000. The Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966 "assume that the system is designed to serve a minimum population of 150,000 people, which appears to ensure the most economical and effective use of staff, collections and funds."[13] But the study found that the number of services offered by systems tends to be in direct ratio to the size of the population they serve. The table below derived from the responses of 487 systems shows this relationship for any combination of the following nine services: systematic referral of information (requests to a resource library), centralized processing, centralized purchasing, systemwide users' privileges, bookmobile service, service to users totaling 60 hours weekly, central materials collection supplementing units, in-service training programs, and systemwide consultants' services. Finally, systems which have a suburban element tend to provide the largest number of services; rural systems offer the fewest; and urban systems fall in-between. But multi-county systems are far more likely to offer a large number of services. Furthermore, most of the systems are small and depend primarily upon county and municipal funds for support. Two-thirds of the systems have fewer than ten stationary outlets open ten hours a week with paid staff. Nearly 40 percent of the systems listed the county as the only source of funds.

---

[11] S. Gilbert Prentiss. "The Findings of the Public Library System Study." The Bookmark. May, 1967. p. 245.

[12] This study undertaken by Nelson Associates, Inc. for the Public Library Association is scheduled for publication in 1968.

[13] Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966. Chicago: American Library Association. 1967. p.41.

NUMBER OF SERVICES OFFERED BY SYSTEMS
IN RELATION TO SIZE OF POPULATION

Population Range	Total Number of Systems	Percent of Systems			
		1-3 Services	4-6 Services	7-9 Services	No Answer
Less than 25,000	89	32.6	37.1	25.8	4.5
25,000 to 49,000	104	11.6	36.5	49.0	2.9
50,000 to 99,000	115	7.8	28.7	61.8	1.7
100,000 to 249,000	106	7.5	27.3	62.4	2.8
250,000 to 499,000	39	2.6	18.0	79.4	0.0
500,000 to 749,000	14	0.0	21.4	71.5	0.0
Over 750,000	20	0.0	10.0	75.0	15.0

The tentative findings of the study include the view that the technical benefits which a system can provide - centralized purchasing, processing and record keeping - are often not accruing to the member libraries because the systems are too small and therefore inefficient and the members too individualistic, thereby dissipating the advantages of standardized procedures. The benefits of access the individual users should receive are also less than adequate because librarians lack the training in reference services which would open up the resources of the system to the researcher and again because many of the systems are too small to supply the minimum tools at each of the outlets. There has also been a tendency to combine weak libraries without adequate provision for a strong central library. Generally, systems which grew without statewide planning are the systems which are not providing adequate service or realizing the savings which centralization can bring.

Trends in Library Government

Early in the life of the public library movement, the local institutions were governed by voluntary boards of trustees who were to provide continuity of direction, a channel for the receipt of endowments and insulation from corrupt local governments. The boards were supposed to represent the public interest but they were dominated by the middle class to the exclusion of labor and agriculture. Boards also established the library policy but many were involved in operating matters, too. As librarians became more professional, they resisted incursions into their authority by trustees. Had the boards been able to meet the librarians' financial needs, their influence might have been sustained. But increasingly, libraries have traded their complete independence for the ongoing financial support of local governments. Many librarians believe the public library must be an active part of the political process if it is to flourish. They argue that the interests of the public library would be even better served if it were fully incorporated into city government or mandated as is free public schooling. As the library's ties with local and state governments grow stronger, the library boards tend to become advisory in character. They may continue, however, to protect the library from the dangers of censorship, promote the library in its pursuit of funds and provide the citizenry with a voice in governing their own institutions.

FINANCE

Trends in Tax Revenue

All public libraries have ties with the local government but there are a variety of structural and financial differences. Some are administered as departments of the local government. Most are under control of independent library boards. Others are part of the local school system and some are parts of independent library districts. Whatever the structural arrangement, however, the traditional means of financing library service has been from local government revenues.

The difficulty is that local revenues cannot keep pace with local demands. Until early in the Twentieth Century the property tax was the chief source of most governmental revenue. As late as 1902 over one-half of all governmental tax revenue was raised by property tax. But with the advent of the income tax the situation changed. By 1956 the income tax yielded 60.7 percent of the total revenue and property tax only 12.8 percent. Sales and similar taxes produced 10.1 percent of the revenue. Furthermore, in 1902 local governments raised 51.2 percent of the total tax revenue. The federal government produced 37.4 percent and the states 11.4 percent. In 1956 local government collected only 14.2 percent of the total revenue, the states 14.6 percent, and the federal government with its much more efficient machinery raised 71.2 percent of the total revenue.[14]

---

[14] Carnovsky, Leon and Ivinger, Howard. The Medium-Sized Public Library: Its Status and Future. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. 1963. p.16.

Even though the relative importance of the property tax has declined, it is still the major revenue producer for local governments who are limited by the states in the tax sources open to them. The property tax yielded 88.6 percent of local revenues in 1902 and 86.9 percent in 1956. To meet their budgetary requirements, however, localities have resorted to sales taxes, gross receipt taxes and special charges for city services.

In 1960 libraries received only 1.2 percent of the total local expenditures or $185 million out of a total $15,250 million spent by city governments. Only water transport and terminals, general public buildings and liquor store expenditures were credited with smaller amounts.[15] When librarians have sought an increase in library appropriations they have found strong opposition to increasing property taxes and resistance to any library reorganization which would weaken local government control. Local and state funds have increased but libraries have not gotten an adequate share compared to educational and welfare agencies. Libraries are in a weak bargaining position because they do not cater to strong interest groups and because their professional organizations are not rich enough to lobby effectively in each of the 50 states. Consequently, librarians have sought federal funds which are both more plentiful and offered on better terms than state funds usually are. Hence, in 1965 federal support of state and local library service was estimated at 13 percent of the total. Although library income from the states has increased from 1.9 percent in 1940 to 8 percent in 1965, 19 states allocated no funds to libraries and 11 accounted for $30 million of the $34.7 million which was allocated nationally. Finally, local support of library service has increased from 86.7 percent in fiscal 1940 to 72.2 percent in 1965. Henry T. Drennan concludes that the nation is financing public libraries in terms of its capacity to afford them at only a slightly higher rate than it was 30 years previously in the late years of the Depression.[16]

Trends in Library Costs

Drennan goes on to say that even though libraries are getting a somewhat larger share of the municipal budget, the costs for library services are increasing. The tables below cover only the salary, hard cover book and periodical costs. But these items constitute the bulk of library expenditures. The Bowker Annual, which prepares price indexes as part of its book trade statistics, reveals that periodical and hard cover book average price and index from 1957 to 1966 are as follows:

---

[15] For a more complete discussion see Edward A. Wight's "Financial Support of Public Libraries." Library Trends. April, 1963. pp. 343-352.

[16] "Cost of Public Library Service." Library Trends. April, 1963. pp. 362-75.

	1957-59		1960		1961		1962	
	Price	Index	Price	Index	Price	Index	Price	Index
Books	$5.29	100.0	$5.24	99.1	$5.81	109.8	$5.90	111.5
Periodicals	$4.92	100.0	-	-	$5.63	114.4	$5.92	120.3

	1963		1964		1965		1966	
	Price	Index	Price	Index	Price	Index	Price	Index
Books	$6.55	123.8	$6.93	131.0	$7.65	144.5	$7.94	150.0
Periodicals	$6.31	128.3	$6.64	135.0	$6.95	141.3	$7.44	151.2

Also from the Bowker Annual are average starting salaries for professionals.[17]

1957	$4450
1958	4683
1959	4862
1960	5083
1961	5365
1962	5661
1963	5902
1964	6145
1965	6468

The cost of library personnel has increased although the lower limits of the salary range did not increase as much as the top ranges. However, these increases served only to offset the rise in the cost of living and in some cases the real value of some salaries declined even though the dollar amounts were increased. Furthermore, the plight of the library is compounded by the fact that raising the productivity of librarians is by the nature of their work very difficult. So although their salaries rise their output does not rise in proportion if at all. It is, therefore, unlikely that libraries can anticipate much relief through the growing efficiency of their professional staffs. They might, however, be able to shift some duties presently being performed by professionals to less costly non-professional staff.

---

[17] The Bowker Annual of Library and Trade Book Information. New York: R. R. Bowker Co. 1967. p. 288.

They might also explore the advantages of centralizing and automating circulation control, technical services and supporting services. However, the exploration must be highly critical. Since a certain volume of activity is required before centralization and automation are economical, libraries must be quite clear what the minimum levels are before signing contracts and making conversions. Very possibly better management controls and the simplification of procedures would result in some savings. Librarians are well trained to man service areas but they are less well prepared to manage large, complex institutions or solve the financial dilemmas of smaller community libraries.

Since the municipal sources of income are nearly exhausted, costs are steadily rising and compounding for institutions which provide personal service, libraries now look to the state and federal governments to help bear the burden of the daily operating expenses. They argue that demonstration funds have been stimulating and useful, but that if libraries are considered to have a social value both the state and federal governments must be prepared to share the operating costs of libraries. Many states make only token payments - or none at all - for the support of local libraries. Several formulas have been commonly discussed throughout the field but none have been argued systematically. The development and general acceptance of a "fair share" formula is one of the important items of business on the library agenda.

Special Metropolitan Library Problems

In 1961 there were 8,190 public libraries in the United States. Of these 254 (3 percent) were located in places of 100,000 population or more and served 80,000,000 people or 45 percent of the total population. On the other hand, 70 percent of the libraries were located in communities of less than 10,000 people. However, the core cities have declined in population and relative taxable wealth while suburbs have experienced huge increases in population and industrial installations. For instance, between 1930 and 1950 the population in New York City doubled and reached its peak in 1950. It has now a stable population of 8,000,000 but the composition has changed. Between 1950 and 1960 the middle class white residents were replaced by 800,000 Negroes and Puerto Ricans. In Detroit, also, the population peaked in 1950 and then declined in the following decade while the surrounding metropolitan areas soared. By 1980 it is estimated that the core city will constitute just a little over one-fourth of the entire region.

On the other hand, an April 1962 survey of Detroit Public Library users revealed that 31 percent came from outside the city limits, and

22 percent of the organizations using the library came from outside the city (November 1960 survey). The picture is the same for other center city libraries. In Milwaukee, 18 percent of the users were non-residents (1961); Minneapolis - 23 percent were non-residents (1956); in Cleveland one-half of the cards issued were to suburban residents (1960); Los Angeles - 26 percent of the reference service went to non-residents; and in Boston 50 percent of the reference use was by non-residents. With rising costs, a high percentage of non-resident users but diminishing financial resources, center city libraries are already in the throes of a severe financial crisis.[18]

PERSONNEL

In the September, 1967 issue of the ALA Bulletin, Henry Drennan and Sarah Reed surveyed the shortage of public library manpower.[19] Basing their projections on the present ratio of professional librarians to the population of its public, they concluded that between 1965 and 1970 there will be a 7.5 percent increase in authorized professional public library positions. Their arguments for this prediction appear below.

> "Staffing. From fiscal year 1939 to, and including, fiscal year 1962, the work force of public libraries in the United States increased 96 per cent. In about the same period (1940-62) the resident population of the United States grew 42 per cent. Thus the public library work force expanded at a rate more than double the population growth of the nation. Concurrently, the number of persons in the service areas of public libraries increased from 79 million in fiscal year 1939 to 156 million in 1962. The increase in public library work force of 96 per cent was close to the 98 per cent increase in population of service areas over these years.
>
> "While the public library work force was increasing on the whole, the increase in positions designated professional was only about half of the general increase. The 13,260 professional positions of fiscal year 1939 increased by fiscal year 1962 to 19,852 positions, This growth of 50 per cent is far below the general increase in all positions of 96 per cent.

---

[18] For a more detailed treatment of the problems facing metropolitan libraries see Emerson Greenaway's article, "Large Public Libraries" in The Future of Library Service by Frank Schick.

[19] Drennan, Henry and Reed, Sarah. "Library Manpower." ALA Bulletin. September, 1967. pp. 958-960.

"There was in 1939 one filled professional position in public libraries for every 6000 residents. In 1962 there was one filled professional position for every 7880 residents. Considering the whole force (excluding custodial), there was one library staff member for each 3300 persons in 1939. In 1962, the ratio was one staff member for each 3100 persons in the service areas.

"Composition of Public Library Staffs. Shifting terminology and the appearance and disappearance of personnel categories over the years in the Office of Education studies on public library statistics make it difficult to comment upon any trend in the composition of the public library work force. However, bearing that caution in mind, one observation can be made. The clerical component of public library staffs has grown greatly; the proportion of professional staff has declined since 1939. In 1939, a quarter of the public library staff was reported to be in clerical positions. By 1962, 61 per cent of the staff were in clerical positions.

"Unfilled Positions. The first comprehensive collection of vacancy statistics for public libraries was made in fiscal year 1962. For that year there were reported to be 1147 vacant budgeted professional positions out of a total of 20,999. The vacancy rate of 5.5 per cent is quite similar to the vacancy rate for professional academic librarian positions of 5.2 per cent. Vacancy figures for all public libraries in 1965 were not available, but, in public libraries with service areas of 25,000 and above, 1015 vacant budgeted professional positions were reported to exist. This is a rate of 7.1 per cent. In 1962, public libraries with service areas of 35,000 and above reported 965 vacancies for budgeted professional positions. This rate of 7.2 per cent is below the 1965 figure of 7.7. In general, the larger the library's service area in population, the higher the vacancy rate for budgeted professional positions.

"In March 1967 the Personnel Administration Committee of the New York Library Association recommended that for beginning librarians with a master's degree and no previous experience the initial annual salary be $7000. A subcommittee of the Standards Committee of the Public Library Association has made a similar recommendation (approved at the San Francisco Conference). If public library administrators and academic library administrators accept these recommendations, considerable upgrading of salaries now below the $7000 level would be required.

"For public libraries with population service areas of 300,000 and more in 1966, there were 5540 positions within the full professional spectrum of skills. Thirty-four per cent of these, 1893 positions, were paid less than $7000 annually. For academic libraries in that same year there were 4142 such positions that fell below the contemplated $7000 minimum that would require upgrading. Such a shift would, of course, involve a general upward movement in annual salaries.[20]

"There is a growing uneasiness in the public library circle that professional public librarians are paid less than their counterparts in school, special and academic libraries. This situation could contribute to an even more serious personnel shortage in the public library, in both quantity and quality."

"Age and Education of Public Librarians. The study Library Manpower furnishes some information upon the age and education characteristics of a sample of public librarians...A number of persons reading the study have stressed the salient nature of the age of public librarians and the year in which they received their last degree...

"The median year for work ended or highest degree for public librarians reporting in this sample in 1962 was 1940. The median age of public librarians, as presented in Library Manpower, was 49.2 years for women and 40.5 for men. A significant portion of the women librarians, 23.2 per cent, will be eligible for retirement in the 1960's. Any discussion of public library manpower cannot overlook the need to replace nearly a quarter of the largest portion (85 per cent) of the public library's work force within the eight years from the time of the report to the beginning of the 1970's."

---

[20] Genevieve Casey, Professor of Library Science at Wayne State University, adds this comment about the salaries of public librarians and consequent professional shortages. "There is a growing uneasiness in the public library circle that professional public librarians are paid less than their counterparts in school, special and academic libraries. This situation could contribute to an even more serious personnel shortage in the public library, in both quantity and quality."

Drennan and Reed readily admit that their projections are based on presently budgeted professional positions. The question librarians are now asking themselves is: Do professionals spend too much of their time on non-professional tasks thereby creating a self-inflicted shortage? Put another way, is there a shortage of professional librarians or is there a shortage of clerks and technicians? At the moment there is no clear answer to the question but there are a lot of questions.

For instance, where are the real shortages? Are they at the advanced level of professional competence involving a high degree of specialization including specialization in new technology? Are they at the first professional levels which demand a basic knowledge of the principles and practices of librarianship? Are they at the technical level requiring knowledge of routines and skills of library operations? Or are they at the clerical level requiring knowledge of basic business and clerical skills?

If there are shortages primarily of professionals to service the public directly in reading selection and information search, should not these jobs be pegged at an educational level sufficient to satisfy the demands of the work itself? Most public service positions may only require a bachelor's degree. Candidates would have completed a core of library science courses in general reference services, the objectives and organization of libraries, and the principles of library service and then concentrated the remainder of their schooling in the literature of the humanities, science, social sciences or children's literature. The bachelor's degree would be the first step in professional advancement.

Graduate education would be designed for public-service specialists and administrators and would concentrate on library goals and the library's role in society. It would include courses in management, information retrieval, bibliography, intensive research and advanced training for practitioners. The master's program would be the last step in formal education for practitioners but the second step for future faculty members.

If the shortages are at the clerical and technical levels, should not librarians decide whether they want people with more education who can be trained on the job or people with limited education and low level skills? Where does the two year technical library training given by community colleges fit into the library field? And how is the title "librarian" to be used and controlled?

Not only is the profession unclear about the educational qualifications for each level of job; there is also no real agreement on what librarians should do and what non-librarians should do. Some critics suggest that 75 percent of the tasks in libraries can be performed by non-librarians including a wide range of administrative posts. If hospitals, for instance, no longer waste medical talent in administrative work why should libraries? Is there perhaps a need for a library administrator's program in the graduate library schools since today's administrators spend less time on professional considerations than they do on managerial problems? Should not the profession try to match the skill with the demands of the job?

The same question applies to the librarian's relationship to technical and clerical services. Why, for instance, should librarians be involved in those circulation control, cataloging and ordering procedures which are routinized clerical tasks? Why within the library institution cannot parallel career ladders for technical and administrative personnel become common practice for all libraries?

Until a complete evaluation and reclassification of positions is accomplished and generally accepted throughout the profession, no accurate picture of shortages or restructuring of the educational preparation will be possible. These definitions await a thorough examination by educators and practitioners together, perhaps as a working commission under ALA sponsorship.

RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT

The preceding discussion on manpower utilization is a striking but not unusual example of the state of library research. Libraries generally, but public libraries in particular, just do not have sufficient information on which to base their daily operating decisions let alone long-range professional objectives.

More importantly, however, public libraries have not developed or used the new social science instruments for measuring the end products of library service. Does the quality of libraries directly affect the character of the individual and the quality of community life? The library must not only be able to justify its existence in terms of user satisfaction but also in terms of how well libraries contribute to the social good by helping to solve human problems. For instance, is not the time professional librarians spend on serving the public more important than the number of budgeted professional positions? Is not the right book on the shelf at the right time more important than its presence in the shelflist?

The May 1967 issue of the Wilson Library Bulletin contained a long discussion of areas for research. Below are some questions which have come up repeatedly in the literature.

There are seemingly endless questions about the user. How does he behave? What kinds of facilities attract him? Where should these facilities be located? What kind of service does he need? What motivates users and non-users? Is there a decline in book reading? How do people use books? Why do they prefer other media? How can libraries reach the non-user? How can the library best serve the under-educated?

Then there is the question of library organization, internally and externally. What is the best form of library government? What are the implications of cooperative services? What kind of system best serves the consumer of library services? When should services be centralized? How are branches best organized?

Financing library service is also a problem. Are libraries supported better if they are part of separate political bodies, a department of the local government, a part of the local school system or organized in some other way? What are the costs of library services? What is the most economical size of a technical service operation? What share of library costs should be borne by the local government, the state government, and the federal government? How are these shares to be determined?

Constant pleas are made for better library statistics at all levels. But the question is, who should collect the statistics? Who should publish and analyze them? What should they include?

On personnel matters, thought must be given to the nature of librarianship, now and in the future. How can any new educational program be implemented? How many librarians and non-librarians are needed? What should each group do and how should they be trained?

It would appear that public librarians are most concerned about improving the ways of measuring the library's effectiveness as a social institution and in determining the nature and behavior of the user and non-user, the appropriate utilization of manpower, the most effective way of financing library service, and the most efficient way of organizing and running the library as an institution.

Chapter III

LEGISLATIVE PROPOSALS

The Library Services and Construction Act is well administered and well conceived. Its wording is simple and its intent clear. However, past federal legislation has been devoted to strengthening public, school and college libraries with minor attention to how these libraries should be inter-related. A distinction must be made between strengthening libraries as institutions and providing adequate library service for all citizens. The allocation of monies to these institutions without planning their relationship to one another stands little chance of producing full library service throughout the country. The long range issue is not, therefore, whether public libraries need more federal aid so that they may continue to do what they're now doing, but what kind of library service do people need and how can the various libraries and information systems be organized to provide this service.

Looking at the problem from the standpoint of function, library service might be based on an institutional framework quite different from the present division of public, school and college libraries. The center city public library might serve as the research library for surrounding colleges and universities and be financially supported by them. Community centers and high schools might function as the "branch libraries" for their neighborhoods. Large university libraries might function as information and reference centers serving any user in their geographical region. The Library of Congress might assume a whole new range of backstopping responsibilities for all the nation's libraries.

The following legislative proposals are advanced to promote a better understanding of the public library's role in providing total library services for the populace.

1. A body similar to the National Advisory Commission on Libraries, charged with guiding, promoting and coordinating research into library service and the development of full library and and information services throughout the nation should be established on a permanent basis. Initial research should give particular attention to the role and function of each kind of library and how these institutions can best serve the needs of people as individuals, groups and communities. Such a study could be undertaken by the federal government itself or a federal body in cooperation with the American Library Association.

2. The establishment of a national formula for federal, state and local support should be part of a study undertaken by the Commission to devise and finance a national plan for comprehensive

library service covering all conventional libraries as well as the new information systems.

The creation of a national plan for library service is a long-range task. Public libraries have some immediate operational needs which require the attention of the federal government.

3. The level of federal appropriations for public library support under LSCA should be substantially increased. The development of adequate library service for all the people will be directly related to the federal government's willingness to increase its share in the expense of this undertaking. Legislation should be written so as to prevent states from transferring expenses which are properly theirs to the federal government.

4. Special consideration must be given to the problems of metropolitan libraries in the center city. Many of these libraries attract users who live not only outside the tax area which supports the library but also outside the state. While grants directly to these libraries might be more convenient administratively, they would not be regarded with favor by the states. An alternative solution might be to provide funds to be administered by the states for libraries serving populations over 150,000.

5. One of the reasons systems have not always realized their fullest potential is the absence of a strong collection to backstop the community libraries. The federal govenment might earmark funds for the development of libraries designated as "regional reference centers." These centers might or might not be public libraries but their resources should, in any case, be available to all citizens needing reference referral. In fact, such regional centers and other research libraries should be components of every state plan for library service.

6. The Library of Congress should be officially designated as the "national library." As such it would be the ultimate reference source and the nation's technical processing center. Hence, considerable thought should be given now to Library of Congress services and their usefulness to local libraries. For instance, there is reasonable fear that the MARC effort may be incompatible with state and local processing plans now in effect or in various stages of development. There are other services which the Library of Congress could perform for the benefit of state and local

libraries such as pre-cataloging all government documents, fast cataloging service for all English language publications, the free distribution of government documents on fiche or microfilm for selected research libraries, and the indexing and abstracting of major foreign periodicals.

7. Some federal standards might be set to promote full library service. In some instances, states apportion federal money to public library systems without insisting that these systems meet or at least try to meet the ALA's minimum standards. This procedure may be politically popular but it tends to perpetuate weak libraries, weak systems and uneconomic central services. The ALA standards for library systems would provide good guidelines for federal grant criteria, although the law itself might say only that state plans would have to demonstrate that the services requested for support were being performed as efficiently as possible. This would mean that allocations to the states under Title I would be based not only on per capita formulas and matching agreements but also on the states' willingness to plan for adequate library service. Eventually, the per capita formula must be revised according to a "fair share" principle.

8. Title IV of the Library Services and Construction Act should be broadened to include library services to the culturally and educationally handicapped. Library service for the undereducated is so important that it demands special recognition in the law.

9. An advisory committee to the state libraries should be included in every title of the Library Services and Construction Act. Committees are now mandatory in the administration of Titles III and IV but not for Titles I and II. Some public library administrators have felt that funds which should have gone to the local libraries were spent in strengthening the state libraries. They would like a voice in the allocation of these monies. On the other hand, the addition of a separate LSCA title devoted to strengthening state libraries would eliminate questions about the use of Title I funds.

10. While there is some criticism of the matching principle, most librarians agree that it has stimulated state and local funds for library support and is consequently desirable. However, given the need for improved library service, a provision should be made for transferring unused funds from one title to another. A similar principle is now in force in Title I of the Library Services and Construction Act for the transfer of unused allotments from one state to another.

11. Consideration should be given to transferring all existing federal legislation affecting libraries to a single statute.

Appendix A

BACKGROUND AND HISTORY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

SUMMARY

Reprinted in full below through the courtesy of Scarecrow Press is the chapter on the development of the American public library movement from Elmer Johnson's A History of Libraries in the Western World. He sketches the growth of social, proprietary and subscription libraries in colonial America and the upsurge of mercantile libraries during the first half of the Nineteenth Century. The mercantile libraries were established to supplement the tradesman's education in mathematics, bookkeeping and languages through reading and lectures. Unlike their predecessors, the social libraries, they had no recreational features.

Not until 1850, however, did public libraries - that is, publicly supported, publicly controlled institutions free to anyone wishing to use them - take root in the experience of less successful prototypes and more successfully endowed institutions. By 1893, the United States Bureau of Education reported 3,804 libraries of 1,000 volumes and over.

Johnson marks the Andrew Carnegie building grants as the first great stimulant to public library development. Between 1880 and 1900, Carnegie had helped build 2,500 structures in the United States, United Kingdom and Canada. This challenge and a growing interest in public education helped bring free public libraries to all major towns and to many smaller ones by the early decades of the Twentieth Century.

The second impetus to the movement came in the Nineteen Thirties. To help citizens who wanted a better chance of finding a job and others who wanted something to do during their enforced leisure, the Works Progress Administration provided library demonstration funds. By 1939, WPA efforts extended library service to 3 million more Americans. Nevertheless, one-third of the population still remained without it.

Libraries continued to grow during World War II as adult education and public information centers. Then in 1956, the Library Services Act earmarked federal funds for library extension to towns of 10,000 or less. This represented a major step forward. Even so, in 1963, 18 million Americans were without library service and 110 million had only inadequate service. In response to the problem, Congress broadened the Library Services Act through the Library Services and Construction Act of 1964. This Act had the principal effect of strengthening state libraries, encouraging the development of systems and cooperative enterprises and stimulating state and local funds for library development.

Public Libraries in the United States*

The generation following the American Revolution saw little in the way of public library service available in the new United States. Even the subscription libraries and rental circulating libraries found it hard going until the 1790's when business began to improve a little. Publicly supported free circulating libraries were virtually unknown until after 1850, but in the form of social libraries, proprietary and subscription libraries and their variations, there was some type of relatively inexpensive reading available in the larger towns, especially after 1800.

Some of the colonial social libraries survived the Revolution. The Philadelphia Library Company, the Redwood Library in Newport, the New York Society Library, and the Charleston Library Society can be mentioned as among the more important ones. Many more were added, however, after 1790, and it has been estimated that over 500 were organized in New England alone between 1790 and 1815, and almost another 500 before 1850. Many of these lasted only a short time, of course, but enough of them did survive so that for the average reader they provided most of the reading matter down to about 1875. In its simplest form the social library was a subscription library, containing popular reading available to anyone who cared to pay the small fee. In other forms it served a more restricted clientele and built its book collection along more specific lines. Besides the general social libraries that served readers in a town or area, there were also lyceum libraries, mercantile libraries, mechanics' libraries, apprentices' libraries, Young Men's Christian Association Libraries, and even factory workers' libraries. After 1800 the social library spread into the smaller towns, to the middle West, and to a lesser degree into the South. In the North and East almost every town had at least one social library, and the larger towns usually had several. In book numbers, these collections ranged from a few hundred to several thousand in a few exceptional cases. Some completely excluded fiction, while others included up to half of their book stock in this increasingly popular form of reading. Science, economics, agriculture, sociology, and law made up only a small percentage of titles in most social libraries, but literature, travel, history, and religion were usually well represented. Many libraries maintained public reading rooms and added the latest

---

* Johnson, Elmer. A History of Libraries in the Western World. Metuchen, New Jersey: Scarecrow Press, 1965. pp. 312-332.

English and American periodicals to their holdings of books and pamphlets.

The organization of the social library was usually very simple. In the smaller ones there was little or no attempt at arrangement or classification, but in the larger collections books were usually divided by larger subjects or even by locally developed systems of classification. Catalogs ranged from none through simple manuscript accession records to printed alphabetical or classed lists. Housing for the collection might be in a public building, a member's home or business, or in the case of larger collections, in a separate rented or owned building. One of the most interesting of the subscription libraries flourished on a houseboat on the Erie Canal. This "Book Boat" flourished for about a generation after 1830, plying the canal from Albany to Buffalo about once each month. Tying up to a wharf for a few days at a time, it would rent its literature, varying from religion to joke books, at 2 cents an hour or 10 cents a day. The more permanently located collections usually were open only a few hours per day and sometimes only a day or so per week. An attendant, voluntary or paid, charged books and checked on their return in the smaller collections, while the larger libraries had more or less full-time "librarians." As early as 1793 a pamphlet had been written to advise the book selectors for social libraries on the best methods of obtaining books, and the best books to be chosen. This was the Selected Catalogue of Some of the Most Esteemed Publications in the English Language Proper to Form a Social Library, written by Thaddeus Mason Harris, a young man who had served for a short time as librarian at Harvard. His booklet was one of the earliest American works on book selection, and as such it is interesting. He divided all books into three classes: memory, reason, and imagination. The first class included all phases of history, biography, and travel; the second, science, philosophy, and religion; and the third, poetry, drama, fiction, and art. In all he recommended only 81 titles, but these were well selected for the time and purpose. Ordinarily, the smaller social libraries bought only a few new books each year, but collectively they made up a major book market, so that book publishers and dealers soon came to offer them special discounts to secure their trade.

The mercantile library, popular in the larger cities, began primarily as an educational effort designed to improve the status of the clerical workers in the stores, warehouses, and shops. They were often encouraged and even partly financed by the business interests, but their primary appeal was to the ambitious young worker who could afford the small fees. They were similar to the "mechanics" libraries' established in England in the late eighteenth century, but unlike them they tended in time to broaden the range of reading matter on their shelves and become more like a general subscription library than a vocational collection. The two earliest mercantile libraries were those of New York and Boston, both established in 1820. The Philadelphia Mercantile Library began the next year, while by the 1830's the movement had reached Baltimore, Detroit, and Cincinnati. Other similar institutions were known as Young Men's Institutes, Young Men's Associations, Mechanics' Institutes, and Apprentices' Libraries, and many of them in time became important libraries of many thousands of volumes. The New York Mercantile Library, for example, had over 150,000 volumes by 1875, while that at Philadelphia had about 125,000. These libraries were often associated with other educational features, such as adult education classes, public lecture programs, recreation rooms, and even gymnasiums. The educational and cultural effect of these libraries is difficult to assess, but undoubtedly they must have served a valuable purpose because of their widespread and long-continued operation. Throughout most of the nineteenth century they and similar institutions provided the best library service available in their respective areas, and they did not give way until long after the beginning of the free public library movement.

After 1850 the library service for young men was augmented by the libraries of the Young Men's Christian Association. Organized in Boston in 1851, this morally motivated organization spread rapidly across the nation, having over 180 local chapters, or associations, by 1875. Most of these local groups conducted reading rooms or libraries and circulated books to the members. Since membership fees were rather small, the YMCA libraries reached a potentially larger clientele than even the mercantile libraries, but the religious overtones served to limit the number served. Actually, although the moral improvement of the young man was a primary motive of the book collection, and the study of the Bible was a central theme, the libraries soon came to include much general reading matter. The reading rooms were always free to the general public, and newspapers and periodicals always available, as well as general reading and reference works. One popular feature of the YMCA libraries was that they were open Sunday afternoons and evening when other libraries were closed. The YMCA library in New York reached 10,000 volumes by 1875, but most of the others were much smaller.

The social library in its various forms spread westward not long behind the general flow of settlers. In Athens County, Ohio, a settlement in 1803 established a library partially paid for by coonskins sent back East for sale. Hence it has become known as the "Coonskin Library," although its formal title was the Western Library Association. It began with a collection of 61 volumes and flourished for about 30 years before a period of decline set in. The remaining books were finally disposed of about the time of the Civil War. Lexington, Kentucky, had a library organized as early as 1795, with many books ordered from England. It was chartered in 1800 with the title of "The Lexington, Georgetown and Danville Library Association." It absorbed the Lexington Juvenile Library in 1810, indicating a children's subscription library before that date, and had some 8,000 volumes listed in its catalog published in 1821. There is reported to have been a subscription library in Vincennes, Indiana, in 1806, and St. Louis had one by 1811. Cincinnati had an active circulating library in 1814, and Detroit in 1817. Chicago had a Sunday School Library in 1832, a Lyceum Library in 1834, and a Young Men's Association Library by 1841, among others. If newspaper notices can be believed, there were a variety of "reading rooms" in almost every midwestern town, with St. Louis boasting at different times of one in a hotel, one in a newspaper office, and a combined "Reading Room and Punch House" that must have been very popular. The New Harmony, Indiana, Working Men's Institute Library of 1847 consisted of about 1,000 volumes, of which 250 titles were of history, 105 of science, 95 of fiction, and 60 of sociology, but only 12 were of poetry and 7 on religious topics. In all, there were more than 160 social libraries chartered in Ohio before 1850, and though there were considerably fewer in Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan, the coverage in those states was fairly general for the larger towns.

In the South the Charleston Library Association remained a successful subscription library, having about 4,500 volumes in 1808 and about 18,000 by 1850. It was not alone, however, since there were other library societies in Charleston and about 30 in other parts of South Carolina for longer or shorter periods of time before 1850. One particularly worthy of notice was the Georgetown Library Society, formed by a group of planters in that coastal South Carolina town in 1800. It never grew large in size, but it was well used, and as a combination of a popular library and an agricultural collection it existed until the Civil War. It is interesting to note that a local printer was librarian for a time and did much to insure the library's success. In Baltimore a Library Company was formed in 1795 with 59 members; shares sold at $30 each and there was an annual fee of $4. By 1800 it had 345 members and 3,300 volumes in rented quarters on Holliday Street. It flourished for a while, but a number of similar libraries sprang up and competition became strong. In 1854 its remaining collection was deposited with the Maryland

Historical Society. Among the other social libraries of Baltimore was the Mercantile Library Association that began in 1839 and had over 30,000 volumes in 1875. Alexandria, Virginia, had a subscription library, founded by George Wise and others in 1798. In a catalog published in 1856 it listed 4,481 volumes, but it declined during and after the Civil War. New Orleans, according to an 1820 directory, contained a Library Society, a Law Library, a subscription reading room, and a "free library at the Presbyterian Church." The Library Society Collection was burned in 1828, but reopened later as a Commercial Library that by 1837 had over 5,000 volumes. Library fortunes in the Crescent City were variable, however, for by 1857 the scene there included a State Library, a Merchants' Reading Room, a Young Men's Association Library, and a Public School Lyceum and Society Library. The latter was a subscription library, but it was directed particularly toward young people and in a roundabout way was an ancestor of the present New Orleans Public Library. Elsewhere in the South there were subscription libraries at various times before 1850 in Natchez, Mississippi; Mobile, Alabama; Savannah and Augusta, Georgia; Wilmington and New Bern, North Carolina; Nashville and Knoxville, Tennessee; and in several towns in Virginia. In Augusta the Young Men's Library Association began its collection in 1848, but it soon gathered several thousand volumes and provided service to its members for well over a half-century. A Library Company was chartered in Knoxville in 1817 with 48 charter members at $5 each, but it was apparently not very successful. Otherwise in the South, the scarcity of large towns kept down the number of opportunities for social libraries, and library development along with education in general was greatly retarded.

The purely commercial circulating library also increased in numbers after the Revolution, but its cultural importance was negligible when compared to the social libraries. For one thing, it was restricted, as was the bookstore of which it was usually a part, to the larger towns. It depended upon a reading public slightly different from that of the social library -- more on the casual reader than on the serious one. It was usually small, but in a few cases of old, established stores, it sometimes reached several thousand volumes. Caritat's Circulating Library in New York City, opened in 1797, had several thousand volumes in its catalog of 1804, including more than a thousand titles of fiction. Even more than the social library, the circulating library reflected popular reading tastes, but unfortunately there are few surviving records of the bookstocks of those commercial ventures, much less any counts of actual circulation. Suffice it to say that they were less important than the social library in the ultimate creation of public libraries, but they did provide a needed public service. They may rightly be considered more the ancestor of the public library pay collection than that of the twentieth-century drugstore rental shelf.

If we define the public library as being a book collection that is publicly supported, publicly controlled, and for general free public use, then there were very few public libraries in the United States before 1850. However, the few that approached this definition were important and deserve recognition. In Salisbury, Connecticut, a collection of books donated in 1803 by Caleb Bingham was preserved and made available by the town as the Bingham Library for Youth. It survived to become a part of the modern Scoville Memorial Library. In Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1827, the town meeting voted to purchase a library for the youth of the town and to employ a librarian to manage it. The collection was deposited in the town church, but so small was the public support that it went out of existence in 1839. In Castine, Maine, a social library founded in 1801 became the property of the town about 1827 and continued to operate as a free public library. Other examples of small collections, more or less publicly owned and supported, can be found especially in New England, but the town usually considered to be the pioneer in permanent public library service was Peterborough, New Hampshire. There, in 1833, it was decided by the town meeting that a part of the State Literary Fund, usually applied to the support of schools, should be used for the purchase of books for a free public library. Other donations added to the size of the book collection, and it was kept for public use in the store that housed the local post office, with the postmaster acting as librarian. By 1837, the collection numbered 465 titles made up largely of religion, history, and biography. The Peterborough Public Library provided a prototype for the future public libraries of the nation. Only in the late 1840's was there a definite movement toward public libraries, as in the case of Orange, Massachusetts, which in 1846 voted $100 to establish a free town library.

It was the passage of state laws enabling the local governmental units to levy taxes for the support of public libraries that really began the modern public library movement. New Hampshire took the lead in 1849 with a law authorizing towns to appropriate money for the establishment and maintenance of public libraries. In 1851, Massachusetts passed a similar law, to be followed by Maine in 1854, and after the Civil War by several other New England and Middle Western States. Furthermore, it was the establishment of a public library in Boston that gave the public library movement a solid foundation. There had been talk of a public library in Boston for several years, and in 1847

Mayor Josiah Quincy, with a conditional offer of $5,000 for books, induced the city council to urge the passage of a library tax. In 1848 the necessary legislative action was obtained for such a tax in the city of Boston, and by 1852 local plans for a public library were underway. Various gifts aided the new library to prepare for its official opening in 1854. Mayor John P. Bigelow gave $1,000, and Edward Everett gave a valuable collection of United States documents along with other books to total more than 1,000 volumes. Joshua Bates gave an endowment of $50,000, the proceeds from which were to be used for the purchase of books. Later on, he gave a large collection of reference works, which together with other volumes were made available to the public in 1861 in the main reference room, or Upper Hall. Numerous other gifts followed, including the Prince Library, collected before 1758, the Bowditch library of mathematics and science, and the George Ticknor library of Spanish history and literature. Such a growing library warranted the management of an experienced librarian, and to this end Charles Coffin Jewett, who had made a name for himself as librarian of the Smithsonian Library in Washington and as author of a study on the library situation in the United States, came to Boston in 1857 to head the new library. His selection was an excellent one, and under his direction the library grew rapidly in size and use. In 1858 the Boston Public Library moved into its own building, and in the same year a printed catalog of the popular library, or Lower Hall, was issued. The reference library, or Upper Hall, had a separate printed catalog, and the total number of volumes in both collections at this time approached 100,000. By 1877 the library contained nearly 300,000 volumes, was circulating over a million volumes per year, had several branches in operation, and was easily the most important public library in the nation.

In contrast to Boston, New York City did not develop a free public library until nearly the end of the nineteenth century. Thanks to the generosity of the Astor family, it had already enjoyed the use of a public reference library since 1848. In that year the will of John Jacob Astor provided funds for a free reference library for the city, including the cost of books, building, and equipment. Later his son and grandson added other gifts to form one of the most important libraries in the nation. The Astor Library was opened for use in 1854 with 80,000 volumes, largely the results of buying expeditions made by the first librarian, Dr. Joseph C. Cogswell. By 1875 it contained some 150,000 valuable works, none of which, according to the librarian, could be classed as "light or ephemeral." Another private collection of great importance in New York City was the Lenox Library, collected and endowed by James Lenox. It was particularly strong in American history and Shakespearean literature, and opened for public reference use in 1870. Although it lacked a public circulating library, New York was well supplied with private and semipublic collections, including the New York Society Library, the New York Historical Society Library, the Mercantile Library, and the Apprentices' Library, to name only a few. These, together with numerous smaller professional, society, and commercial circulating libraries, made it one of the book centers of the nation. About 1880 the New York City Free Circulating Library, a private philanthropy, began operating. By 1895 it had 11 branches and did provide some degree of public library service. None of these institutions were free public libraries, however, and New York City was essentially without such service until after 1895.

In 1886 Samuel Tilden left the bulk of his estate, including his own library of some 20,000 volumes, to the Tilden Trust, with the power to found a free public library in New York City. When the Tilden funds became available in the 1890's, the city officials of New York decided to combine all their libraries into one centrally controlled system. This was done in 1895 with the creation of the New York Public Library. Dr. John Shaw Billings, former librarian of the Army Medical Library, was its first director. At first there was no central library, with the Tilden collection housed in the Astor building and the Lenox Library remaining in its own building. This situation was remedied after 1901 when Andrew Carnegie donated $5,200,000 to the city of New York for the erection of 65 branch libraries, and these were completed in a few years. In 1911, the city completed a central library building, long wanted and long awaited, and this is the building known as the New York Public Library. It is a public reference library, housing the Lenox, Astor, Tilden, and other research collections, and is one of the truly great libraries of the world. By 1913 the New York Public Library system already contained more than 2 million volumes, and in 1960 there were over 4 million books in the main library alone. Brooklyn's public library began in a similar consolidation of several smaller collections in 1897, while the third large public library system in greater New York City, the Queens Borough Public Library, grew out of the Long Island City Library begun in 1896.

Three other public libraries in various parts of the country will illustrate the methods by which the larger cities acquired their public library systems. St. Louis had a Library Society as early as 1824, but its development was uneven, with some good years and some bad, until the books were finally sold in 1839 to the St. Louis Lyceum, which in turn passed the library on to the Mercantile Library Association. This group, which had begun a library in 1846, moved the combined collection into a building of its own in 1854, with over a thousand members and

12,000 books. By 1875 it had over 42,000 volumes and was on the whole a most successful subscription library, destined to last well into the twentieth century. The Mercantile Library, however, was not only a subscription library, but it was also restricted by its subject field to only one segment of the general reading public. Hence, there was a strong demand for a more-available public library, and this was answered in 1865 with the creation of the St. Louis Public School Library. The title was misleading in at least two ways — it was not strictly public since a fee was charged, and it was not a school library, although most of its clientele was derived from teachers and students. In 1868 the library became more public when it moved into a city-owned building, and several smaller libraries were purchased or received as gifts. By 1875 it contained nearly 40,000 volumes and had nearly 6,000 paid members. In 1874 the library was opened to nonmembers for reading and reference, but only members could take books from the building. By 1884 the word School was dropped from the title, and in the next 10 years the membership fees were dropped, and a free public library was well under way. After remaining in the Board of Education building from 1893 to 1909 and in rented quarters from 1909 to 1912, the St. Louis Public Library moved into its first central building, a Carnegie structure, in 1912. In 1929 it had some 750,000 volumes and 17 branches, and by 1960, 1,200,000 volumes and 22 branches, making it one of the major municipal libraries in the nation. In addition to the city library, St. Louis County has its own library, organized around several suburban collections in 1946 and serving 465,000 people in 1962 with a collection of 435,000 volumes.

New Orleans has a library history as varied as that of St. Louis, with a number of institutions serving as ancestors of the present Public Library. As early as 1805 the Territorial Legislature had authorized a public library in New Orleans, and in the same year a Library Society was chartered there, but nothing came from either venture. The surviving books from the Library Society of the 1820's and the Commercial Library of the 1830's came into the hands of the philanthropist, Alvarez Fisk, and was opened to the public as the Fisk Free Library in 1849. This was a free reference collection, not a circulating library. In 1896 the Fisk Free Library and the Public School and Lyceum Society Library were combined to form the New Orleans Public Library, and in 1908 it moved into a new building. By 1929 this library had some 250,000 volumes and 5 branches, while by 1960, in a new modern building it reported over a half-million volumes, 11 branches, and 2 bookmobiles. In 1889 another privately owned but publicly available reference collection was opened as the Howard Memorial Library, a memorial to Charles T. Howard by his daughter, Annie. This library was later joined with the Tulane University Library to form the Howard-Tilton Memorial Library.

On the west coast, the Los Angeles Public Library illustrates the development of a public library in a rapidly growing metropolis. The Los Angeles Library Association was formed in 1872, with life memberships at $50 and yearly dues at $5. Four rented rooms housed the collection at first. In 1889 it moved into the City Hall and with some city aid became a municipal agency, but dues were still charged for two more years. By 1895 it had 42,000 volumes, and by 1901 its first branch was opened. In 1906 and again in 1914 the library headquarters moved, first into rented quarters, and then into the Metropolitan Office Building. Not until 1926 did the central library have a building of its own, and by that time it had 44 branches and 76 deposit stations with nearly a million volumes in all. By 1962, Los Angeles had one of the world's largest public libraries, with 2,765,000 volumes serving some 2,500,000 people. It had 6 regional library units, plus 53 branches, 4 special libraries and 4 bookmobiles. In 1957, a $6,400,000 building program enabled the city to build 28 new branch buildings, some in new areas and some consolidations of earlier, smaller collections. To supplement the library service outside the Los Angeles city limits, there is the Los Angeles County Library system, which serves the unincorporated and rural areas, 39 different municipalities, and over 2 million people. It has 93 service outlets and 8 bookmobiles, with 8 regional headquarters and nearly 1,785,000 volumes to serve them. The two Los Angeles systems together form a truly amazing library service, which in terms of materials available and service rendered to the public can hardly be surpassed anywhere else in the world. Yet even with these superb facilities, Los Angeles is growing so fast that its library services cannot keep up with its library needs.

Getting back to the development of public library service in general, the school district library should be mentioned. This early service was publicly owned and controlled, and although usually housed in schools, it was intended to be used largely by adults. This type of library apparently originated in New York State, but it spread widely throughout New England and the Middle West. New York's Legislature passed an act in 1835 that made it permissible for school districts to levy taxes for school libraries. This law brought little response, but a second one passed in 1838, which provided state funds to match local levies for books, was more successful, and in three years more than 400,000 books were placed in the schools of New York State. This idea grew until by 1850 there were nearly a million and a half volumes in the state school libraries. However, without proper staff and quarters, many of the books were lost or allowed to deteriorate. The interest in the libraries was high at first but soon declined, and state laws were passed allowing the library funds to be spent for school equipment or even for teachers' salaries.

The school district library plan in Massachusetts dates from a law passed in 1837, and 2,084 libraries were reported in that state by 1850. In all, they contained only about 100,000 volumes, or an average of about 50 books per collection, and here again the movement was a failure. Connecticut followed Massachusetts in 1839, and Rhode Island in 1840. In these states the idea was somewhat more successful in the long run. Several Middle Western States, including Michigan, Indiana, and Ohio, made arrangement for school district libraries before 1850, but in general they were not very successful.

The school district libraries were usually small, and their contents consisted of textbooks, general works, and a smattering of inspirational literature. The majority of the books were above the reading level and beyond the interests of all but the most advanced students, and though they were theoretically available to the adults of the community, they were not too widely used. Several publishing firms took advantage of the school district library laws and compiled sets of works, poorly selected, printed and bound, but sold on commission through local representatives. These sets often took up the entire funds available, and their drab appearance and dry contents did little to promote the public library idea. For lack of quarters in the schools themselves, the library books were often stored in the homes of teachers or school board members, and an investigation of the New York school district libraries in the 1850's found many of the books molding in closets, cellars, and attics. The school district library movement was premature, poorly supported, and consequently unsuccessful, but it did serve to establish the precedent of public support for library service, and in this respect paved the way for genuine public libraries at a later date.

Probably the most numerous and the least appreciated of all the semipublic libraries of the nineteenth century were the Sunday School libraries. Practically every church, particularly in the North and West, designated a small collection of books as the Sunday School library. Sometimes books of a general nature were included, but usually the contents were religious or inspirational. Where other sources of reading matter were not available, they were probably well used, but in time many of them came to include works of such maudlin sentimentality that their use declined. The term Sunday School book came to be used as a term of derision when other types of literature became more available. In the larger cities, several churches of the same denomination were sometimes able to combine their efforts and provide a larger collection of books, complete with a library room and the services of a part-time keeper, but these libraries were more for the use of ministers and church-workers than for the average member or his children. Again the Sunday School library must be considered an effort in the right direction, but as a forerunner of the true public library it was a failure.

Something of a cross between a public library and a special library was the railroad library of the late nineteenth century. There seem to have been at least three different types, or phases, of the railroad library. First was the popular library for railroad crews and employees; second, a popular library for the use of railroad passengers; and third, a technical library for the use of railroad employees. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, for example, maintained a circulating library in Baltimore from 1881 to 1931 for its employees. Some contents were technical, but most volumes were simply for popular reading. This library was sold when its usefulness was ended by public libraries and popularly priced books, but in 1944 the company organized a technical research library. The Seaboard Air Line had a popular library in Jacksonville, Florida, which was turned over to the public library in that city in 1922. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad had a library with deposits on each long-run train for the use of the passengers. Other railroads made similar efforts to provide reading matter for their employees and customers, but the system had virtually disappeared by the 1920's.

The greatest progress in American public libraries has come since 1900 with the impetus of the Carnegie building funds and the general increased effect of public education. Andrew Carnegie, an immigrant from Scotland who made millions in the steel industry, began in the late nineteenth century to direct his philanthropy toward the erection of library buildings for public and college libraries. As early as 1881 he began to encourage the construction of free public libraries with a gift of a library to the Pittsburgh area where his steelworkers lived. After this he began to offer library buildings to any municipality that would form and guarantee to support a public library, and by 1920 he had provided financial aid toward the construction of no less than 2,500 library buildings in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain. It is true that in some cases the libraries begun in substantial buildings never fulfilled their promise and were poorly stocked and staffed, but in most cases the libraries, once begun, were kept up over the years, and the[y] provided at least a moderate amount of library service for millions of people.

Besides Carnegie, other benefactors aided libraries, and in the first decades of the twentieth century public libraries were well established in all the nation's larger towns and cities, and in many smaller ones as well, although quality and quantity of service varied from town to town. The subscription libraries continued to decline, and most of them either went out of operation entirely or merged with the newer public libraries. This was not always easily accomplished, however, as for example in Philadelphia. There was a move in that city to merge the strong Mercantile Library into the Philadelphia Free Library as early as 1900, but it was not until 1944 that it was finally accomplished. Public libraries that were firmly established began offering new services with the new century, and such innovations as children's rooms, open stacks, and public card catalogs became more and more common. A few larger libraries were finding it necessary to establish many branches, and in rural areas various ideas were tried out in attempts to bring library service to residents outside the towns. Van Wert County, Ohio, began a successful rural library service, complete with a book van, in 1897, and both Hamilton County, Ohio, and Washington County, Maryland, began some rural library service before 1900. After that date county-wide library service became more popular, although it was not until the 1930's that it became widespread. Another significant step in the promotion of public library service came with the establishment of State Library Commissions. The first of these was established in Massachusetts in 1890, and by 1900 sixteen other states had formed similar bodies for the aid and support of public libraries. For the most part these agencies merely encouraged the establishment of public libraries, advised their personnel, and provided a central clearinghouse for library and book information. In some states, however, particularly in Massachusetts, direct state aid to public libraries was a part of the early state library commission laws and duties. In other states, the library commission or the state library was empowered by law to provide library service by mail to citizens of areas in the state without local library service.

The U.S. Office of Education, taking stock in 1913 of the nation's libraries, proudly reported 3,062 free public circulating libraries of over 1,000 volumes each. It is interesting to note, though, that the great majority of these were in the Northeast and Middle West, while in the South and West public libraries were still few and far between. Soon after this date the coming of World War I slowed down the development of public library service somewhat, but it did bring about another event in American library history that was to have a lasting effect. This was the formation of libraries for the use of servicemen in camps, on ships, and overseas. Over $1,600,000 was raised by public subscription to finance this venture, and its direction was placed in the capable hands of the American Library Association and the American Red Cross. With the A.L.A.-A.R.C. books thus purchased or donated by libraries and individuals, 47 major camp libraries staffed by trained librarians were set up at training bases and overseas headquarters. In addition to these, 261 smaller libraries and over 2,500 supply points, deposits of 50 to 100 books each, were placed at smaller posts, on board ships, and at Red Cross canteens. These books were well used, and there can be little doubt that many soldiers and sailors who were thus introduced to library service during their military careers came home with an increased interest in reading and libraries. At any rate, the return of peace and relative prosperity in the 1920's saw many smaller towns opening their first public libraries, while others extended their services to rural areas, acquired new buildings, or explored new fields of library service. Library extension in particular came into its own during the postwar decade, and library commissions were active. Public funds for library service remained small, however, and large areas of the nation remained without library service, while many other towns and areas were inadequately serviced with untrained staffs and pitifully small book collections.

With the development of public libraries in the Southern States, which came largely after 1900, an interesting social phenomenon occurred in the library service, or lack of it, for the Negro population. Negro schools had lagged behind those for white children since Reconstruction days, and when public libraries began to be erected, they were almost always limited to white readers in all of the Southern States. In a few of the larger and more progressive cities library branches, and occasional completely separate public libraries, were established for the Negro population. These tended to be small, poorly equipped and financed, and staffed by untrained personnel. In 1910, Jacksonville, Florida, was serving Negroes from a basement room in the main library, while Louisville, Kentucky, had just opened a colored branch library. In Houston, Texas, a Colored Library Association sponsored the opening of a colored branch. In 1913, 14 public libraries in the South were offering some type of library service to Negro patrons, and in 1926 this number had reached 45, with some 800,000 Negroes having libraries available. In 1935 seventy-seven public libraries in the South were offering service through separate facilities to some 1,500,000 Negroes, or approximately 17 per cent of the colored population. As late as 1947, only 188 out of 597 public libraries in the South offered some type of library service to Negroes, but the scene was changing and at least a few main libraries were beginning to be opened to Negro readers. This change continued more rapidly in the 1950's and 1960's, with the complete desegregation of public library service throughout the South.

In 1926 the American Library Association published a serious study of the libraries of the nation in its Survey of Libraries in the United States. It was mainly a factual summary, but it emphasized the fact that library service was still far from what it should have been. Over 3,000 libraries of 5,000 volumes or more were queried as to administration, staff, services, and facilities, and a wide variety of replies were received. The survey made few recommendations as to how the services could be improved, but it did serve as a solid basis on which to plan for the future, and had it not been for the depression years that followed, it would have quite probably inaugurated a period of definite library progress.

The depression years that began in 1929 at first brought severe difficulties for public libraries. Budgets were reduced and services were curtailed. Branches were closed in many cases, and bookmobiles discontinued, or services to children reduced. But the depression also brought with it new demands for library service from the unemployed who desired to improve their chances for jobs or from those who simply wanted popular reading matter for their enforced leisure. After 1933 the federal government entered the library scene with the Works Progress Administration, which aided local libraries in many ways. Library workers, both skilled and unskilled, became available under the W.P.A. and National Youth Administration programs, and funds were also made available for new buildings. Eventually statewide W.P.A. library programs were set up to demonstrate public library service where there had previously been none, and many of these "demonstration libraries" became permanent. New books were purchased, old ones mended, and bookmobiles were made available to many new areas. Library extension services throughout the country were given new strength, and more people became public library conscious than ever before. Another federal agency, the Tennessee Valley Authority, began a regional library experiment in the seven states touched by the Tennessee River, and brought public library service to many countries that had hitherto had none. All in all, 1939 found 3,000,000 more Americans with library service thanks to these efforts, but there was still nearly one-third of the nation with no library service at all. Only 400 counties, about one in eight, in all the United States offered county-wide library service in 1940. A third federal agency with library interests came in 1936 with the establishment of the Library Services Division in the U.S. Office of Education. This gave the nation a central clearinghouse for library planning and statistics gathering, and a source of information and guidance for all types of libraries. State aid for local public libraries also gained ground in some states during the 1930's, and this added considerably to the improved library scene.

The effects of the depression years, both favorable and unfavorable, can be seen in the U.S. Office of Education's public library statistics for 1938-39. Bookstocks and circulation were up, but staffs were still too small and budgets considerably stretched to meet the demands. Statistically, there were 6,880 public libraries reporting in that year, and their bookstocks totaled more than 104 million volumes. Some 24 million borrowers had taken home over 400 million volumes, and 7 million new books had been added to public library shelves during that one year. The Northeastern and Middle Western States still had the largest number of libraries, but the Far West was rapidly catching up, and the remainder of the nation was also increasing its library services at a steady rate. The South lagged most noticeably in this respect, but its larger cities were developing stronger libraries and rural library services were expanding.

Between the depression years and the mid-twentieth century came the long years of World War II. Unlike World War I, however, this conflict did not greatly hamper the development of public library service in the United States and if anything tended to encourage it. There were shortages of personnel in most libraries, and in some war-industry areas the rapid growth in population tended to outstrip available library service. Generally speaking, however, public libraries expanded their services and went far beyond the usual supplying of educational and recreational material for reading. In maintaining public morale, in serving business and industry, and in the broad fields of adult education and public information, the wartime services of libraries can hardly be overestimated. Without exaggeration it can be said that America's public libraries more than proved their worth to the nation during the trying days of World War II.

After the war, the public libraries saw a rapid return to normal conditions and then a progressive surge ahead with new branches, new buildings, and new services offered to the public. New problems arose with television and the millions of inexpensive, paperback books that flooded the market. Postwar shifts in population added thousands of patrons to some libraries and subtracted them from others. Two groups in particular, those under 21 and those over 65, increased out of proportion to the remainder of the population, and they provided both a problem and a challenge to library service. Libraries have faced these problems and for the most part are stronger for having met them. Television has been welcomed as an ally and even as a tool for library service, with book reviews and book talks reaching additional thousands of people. Book titles mentioned even casually on a national television program bring thousands of requests for the book to booksellers and libraries. The paperback popular reading, available at low cost, relieves the public library of part of its task in supplying purely entertainment reading, but the better paperbacks, either rebound or not, have been used to stretch library budgets, and in many cases where the format and print is attractive, they have found thousands of new readers for old favorites or for new titles in serious fields. The population changes have been met with improved services to children, special departments for teen-agers and also for those over 65. The demands of high school students for the research services of public libraries have often raised serious problems for the understaffed public libraries, but here again, cooperation between public and school libraries have often increased the value of both.

One great development in the 1950's in the field of public library service came with the passage in 1956 of the Library Services Act by the Congress. This act provides for federal government aid to library extension in rural areas and in towns of 10,000 or less population. In its first 2 years of service it resulted in improved library service in rural areas of 46 states and served as a stimulus for greater effort toward library service on the part of state and local government. Though not directly associated with federal aid to libraries, the same period has seen a great improvement in library service to Negroes, particularly in the South. In 1964, the Public Library Services Act was considerably broadened and strengthened.

Despite these advances, there were in 1963 still over 18 million Americans without access to public library services, and over 110 million Americans still had only inadequate service available. These were the citizens served by libraries where the books were too few or too old, where funds were insufficient to provide the necessary services, and where the staffs were too small or untrained in library skills. The ideal of library service for all was there, but the implementation was lacking. Tremendous progress had been made in only a little more than a half-century, but there was still a long way to go to realize the goal of adequate library service for all Americans.

Appendix B

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. American Library Association.
   Interim Standards for Small Public Libraries: Guidelines Toward Achieving the Goals of Public Library Service. Chicago: The Association, 1962.

2. American Library Association.
   Public Library Association, Standards Committee and Subcommittees. *Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems*, 1966. Chicago: The Association, 1967.

3. American Library Association.
   Public Library Association, Subcommittee on Standards for Children's Services. *Standards for Children's Services in Public Libraries*. Chicago: The Association, 1964.

4. American Library Association.
   American Association of State Libraries, Survey and Standards Committee: *Standards for Library Function at the State Level*. Chicago: The Association, 1963.

5. American Library Association.
   Public Library Association, Subcommittee on Bookmobile Standards. *Standards of Quality for Bookmobile Services*. Chicago: The Association, 1963.

6. American Library Association.
   Public Library Association, Committee on Standards for Work with Young Adults in Public Libraries. *Young Adult Services in the Public Library*. Chicago: The Association, 1960.

7. Avery, C. & Lyman, H. H.
   "Libraries and the Visually Handicapped" *Wilson Library Bulletin*. May, 1966. pp. 854-6.

8. Barker, Tommie Dora.
   Libraries of the South; A Report of Developments, 1900-1935. Chicago: American Library Association. 1936.

9. Blasingame, Ralph, Jr.
   "Equalization of Opportunity" *Library Journal*. May 1, 1965. pp. 2071-80.

10. Blasingame, Ralph, Jr.
    Research on Library Service in Metropolitan Areas; Report of a Rutgers Seminar, 1964/65. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Graduate School of Library Service. Rutgers, The State University. 1967.

11. Bonn, George S.
Technical Information for California Business and Industry.
Sacramento: California State Library, 1966.

12. Borland, Mary.
"Cooperative Practices Explored." New Mexico Library Bulletin.
Spring,1965. pp. 211-16.

13. Bowler, Roberta, (Ed.)
Local Public Library Administration. Chicago: International City
Managers' Association, 1964.

14. Bundy, Mary Lee.
"Metropolitan Public Library Use." Wilson Library Bulletin, May,
1967. pp. 950-61.

15. Bundy, Mary Lee.
Public Library Processing Centers: A Report of a Nationwide Survey.
Troy, New York, 1962.

16. Bunge, C. A.
"Statewide Library Surveys." Library Quarterly, January, 1966.
pp. 25-37.

17. Campbell, Angus.
Public Use of the Library and Other Sources of Information.
Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute of Social Research, 1953.

18. Campbell, H. C.
Metropolitan Public Library Planning Throughout the World. Oxford:
Pergamon Press, 1967.

19. Chicago, University of. Graduate Library School.
A Forum on the Public Library Inquiry. New York: Columbia University
Press, 1950.

20. Chicago, University of. Graduate Library School.
Medium-sized Public Library - Its Status and Future. Chicago:
University of Chicago Press, 1963.

21. Chicago, University of. Graduate Library School. New Directions in
Public Library Development. Chicago: University of Chicago Press,
1957.

22. Chicago, University of. Graduate Library School. Persistent Issues in
American Librarianship. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.

23. Conant, Ralph W.
Library Functions in the Changing Metropolis: The Public Library
and the City. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1965.

24. Coplan, Kate and Castagna, Edwin.
The Library Reaches Out. Dobbs Ferry, N.Y.: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1965.

25. "Crisis in Library Manpower; Myth and Reality," ALA Bulletin, May,1967. pp. 527-557.

26. Daniel, Hawthorne. Public Libraries for Everyone. The Growth and Development of Library Services in the United States Especially Since the Passage of the Library Services Act. New York: Doubleday, 1961.

27. Delvalle, J.
"Reading Patterns of the Aged." AHIL Quarterly, Winter,1966. pp. 8-11.

28. Dieches Fund Studies of Public Library Service. Numbers 1, 2 and 3. Baltimore: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1963.

29. Ditzion, Sidney H.
Arsenals of a Democratic Culture; A Social History of the American Public Library Involvement in New England and the Middle States, 1850-1900. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947.

30. Drennan, Henry T. (Ed.)
"The Unifying Theme." Library Journal. September 15, 1964. pp. 3241-74.

31. Drennan, Henry and Holladay, Doris.
Statistics of the Public Library, 1962, Part 1. United States Office of Education. Washington: Government Printing Office.

32. Drennan, Henry and Holladay, Doris.
Statistics of the Public Library, 1962. Chicago: American Library Association, 1965.

33. Dyckman, J. W.
"Changing Role of Libraries." News Notes of California Libraries, Summer, 1964. pp. 299-304.

34. Eaton, John.
Public Libraries in the United States of America, Their History, Condition & Management: A Special Report. Bureau of Education, Department of Interior. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1876.

35. Eaton, Thelma,(Ed.)
Contributions to American Library History. Champaign, Ill.: Illini Bookstore Union, 1961.

36. Eggen, Archer J.,(Ed.)
"Library Boards." Library Trends, July, 1962. pp.3-74.

37. "Federal Financing for Library Personnel." Wilson Library Bulletin, November, 1965. pp. 242-61.

38. "Financing Public Library Service." News Notes of California Libraries, Summer, 1961. pp. 357-64.

39. Fox, C.
"Trends in Library Public Service." North Carolina Libraries, September, 1961. pp. 75-8.

40. Frantz, John C.
"Public Libraries in Metropolitan Areas." D. C. Libraries, April, 1962. pp. 23-9.

41. Frantz, John C. and Cohen, Nathan.
The Federal Government & the Public Libraries - A Ten Year Partnership 1957-66. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1966.

42. Gallozzi, C.
"New Hope for the Handicapped." Library Journal, April 1, 1967. pp. 1417-20.

43. Garrison, Guy.
"Public Library Growth in Suburban Chicago, 1950-1960." Illinois Libraries, January, 1965. pp. 79-89.

44. Geddes, Andrew.
"Current Trends in Branch Libraries." Library Trends, April, 1966. pp. 365-457.

45. Geller, Evelyn.
"Two Blocks Apart: (YASD pre-conference on the disadvantaged). Library Journal, September 15, 1966. pp. 4222-29.

46. Goggin, Margaret K.,(Ed.)
"Current Trends in Reference Service." Library Trends, January, 1964. pp. 359-472.

47. Gould, S. B.
"New Era for the Public Library." ALA Bulletin, June, 1966. pp. 585-90.

48. Green, Samuel Swett.
Public Library Movement in the United States 1853-93. Boston: Boston Book Co., 1913.

49. Grundt, L.
"Branch Library Inadequacies in a Typical Large City." Library Journal, October 1, 1965. pp. 3397-4001.

50. Hamill, Harold L.
"Recent Developments in Library Service to Students." ALA Bulletin, June,1964. pp. 489-96.

51. Hamill, Harold L.
"The Metropolitan Area and the Library." The Library Quarterly, January, 1961. pp. 13-24.

52. Harlow, Neal
"Misused Librarians." Library Journal, April 1, 1965. pp. 1597-99.

53. Harris, Katherine G.
"Metropolitan Reference Services: Patterns, Problems, Solutions." Library Journal, April 15, 1963. pp. 1606-11.

54. Harrison, Joseph L.
"The Public Library Movement in the United States." The New England Magazine (Vol. 10, No. 6), August, 1894. pp. 709-22.

55. Harrison, K. C.
Public Libraries Today. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1963.

56. Hiatt, Peter and Drennan, Henry.
Public Library Services for the Functionally Illiterate: A Survey of Practice. (Exhibits Round Table) Public Library Association, Chicago: American Library Association, 1967.

57. Hiatt, Peter.
"Urban Public Library Services for Adults of Low Education." Library Quarterly, April, 1965. pp. 81-96.

58. Hopkins, L. M.
"On the Library Stage." Library News Bulletin, January, 1964. pp. 16-18.

59. "The Intellectual Foundations of Library Education." (Proceeding of the 29th Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School, July, 1964) The Library Quarterly, October,1964. pp. 289-396.

60. "Interlibrary Cooperation; A Sampling of Interlibrary Cooperation Programs." Public Library Reporter, Number 12, Chicago: The American Library Association, 1967.

61. Johnson, Elmer D.
A History of Libraries in the Western World. Metuchen, N. J.: Scarecrow Press, 1965.

62. Kink, T. R.
"Can the Local Public Library Serve the Blind?" Bookmark, January, 1966. pp. 139-43.

63. Knox, W. T.
"Changing Role of Libraries." ALA Bulletin, September, 1965. pp. 720-5.

64. Kroll, Morton, (Ed.)
The Public Libraries of the Pacific Northwest. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1960.

65. Ladenson, Alex.
"Twenty Years of Library Legislation." ALA Bulletin, February, 1965. pp. 125-31.

66. Lee, Robert E.
Continuing Education for Adults Through the American Public Library, 1833-1964. Chicago: American Library Association, 1966.

67. "Libraries of the Future." Wilson Library Bulletin, November, 1964. pp. 228-43.

68. "Library Automation: 'Tomorrow' Becomes 'Today.'" Library Journal, June, 1967. pp. 635-694.

69. "Library Education and the Shortage: A Symposium." Library Journal, October 15, 1966. pp. 4881-99.

70. "Library Education & the Talent Shortage." Library Journal, April 1, 1966. pp. 1761-1781.

71. "Library Service to the Aging Population." Wisconsin Library Bulletin, September, 1964. pp. 289-90.

72. Library Trends.
Series of articles on library costs. April, 1963. pp. 343-401.

73. Library Trends.
Series of articles on metropolitan libraries. July, 1965. pp. 76-101.

74. Lorenz, John G.
"Successful Methods of Financing Public Library Improvement in Other States." Wisconsin Library Bulletin Supplement, July, 1962. pp. 286-94.

75. Lucioli, C. E.
"Out of Isolation." Library Journal, April 1, 1967. pp. 1421-3.

76. MacDonald, Bernice.
Literacy Activities in Public Libraries. Chicago: American Library Association, 1966.

77. "Manpower." Library Journal, May 1, 1967. pp. 1795-1801.

78. "Manpower and the Library Profession." Wilson Library Bulletin, April, 1967. pp. 793-827.

79. Marshall, John D.
An American Library History Reader. Hamden, Conn.: The Shoe String Press, 1961.

80. Marshall, John D., (Ed.)
In Pursuit of Library History. Tallahassee: Library School, Florida State University, 1961.

81. Martin, Lowell.
"The Conference Within a Conference--An Inquiry into the Needs of Students, Libraries and the Educational Process." ALA Bulletin, September, 1963. pp. 734-41.

82. Molz, K.
"The Public Library: the People's University." American Scholar, Winter, 1964-65. pp. 95-102.

83. Monypenny, P.
"Public Libraries as a Pressure Group." Illinois Libraries, December, 1961. pp. 720-30.

84. Moon, Eric.
"Preview of Forthcoming Standards for Service to the Blind." Library Journal, February 15, 1965. pp. 830-3.

85. Moon, Eric.
"What's Happening to Public Library Circulation." Library Journal, September 1, 1966. pp. 3851-62.

86. Munn, Ralph.
"Planning for Cooperation." ALA Bulletin, June, 1964. pp. 496-99.

87. Neighborhood Library Centers & Services. A Study by the National Book Committee for the Office of Economic Opportunity. New York: 1967.

88. Peace, W. K.
"Eyes for Texans." Texan Libraries, Winter, 1965. pp. 150-3.

89. Pfoutz, D. R. and Cohen, J. B.
"Service to Industry." A bibliography. Library Trends, January, 1966. pp. 236-61.

90. Public Library Inquiry.
Berelson, Bernard. *The Library's Public*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1949.

91. Public Library Inquiry.
Bryan, Alice I.
The Public Librarian. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952.

92. Public Library Inquiry.
Garceau, Oliver.
The Public Library in the Political Process. New York: Columbia University Press, 1949.

93. Public Library Inquiry.
Leigh, Robert D.
The Public Library in the United States. New York: Columbia University Press, 1950.

94. Public Library Inquiry
Michigan, University of.
Survey Research Center. *The Public Library and the People*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1948.

95. Public Library Inquiry.
Rose, Ernestine.
The Public Library in American Life. New York: Columbia University Press, 1954.

96. Rea, O.
"The Public Library and the Tyrone Guthrie Theatre." *Minnesota Libraries*, December, 1964. pp. 87-90.

97. Sass, Samuel
"Library Technicians - 'Instant Librarians.'" *Library Journal*, June 1, 1967. pp. 2122-26.

98. Schick, Frank L.
The Future of Library Service: *Demographic Aspects and Implications*. (Illinois Contributions to Librarianship No. 6) Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, Graduate School of Library Service, 1962.

99. Schoenfeld, M.
"Children's Theatre in Yonkers." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, December, 1965. pp. 352-5.

100. Sellers, Rose Z.
"A Different Drummer: Thoughts on Library Education." *Journal of Education for Librarianship*, Winter, 1966. pp. 151-66.

101. Shera, Jesse H.
Foundations of the Public Library. Hamden, Conn.: Shoe String Press, 1965.

102. Smith, Hannis S.
"Regional Public Library Systems." Library Trends, January, 1965. pp. 275-381.

103. Strout, Donald E., (Ed.)
The Impact of the Library Services Act: Progress & Potential. (Allerton Park Institute, No. 8) Urbana: University of Illinois, Graduate School of Library Science, 1962.

104. Sutherland, T. A.
"Art in a Public Library." Southeastern Librarian, Summer, 1966. pp. 101-2.

105. Taylor, J. K.
"Library Service to Business." Southeastern Librarian, Fall,1963. pp. 154-64.

106. Thompson, Seymour C.
Evolution of the American Public Library, 1653-1876. Metuchen, N. J.: The Scarecrow Press, 1952.

107. Top of the News.
Series of articles on the poor. January, 1967. pp. 134-156.

108. Tucker, Harold W. and Hennessy, Mildred T.
"The Queens Borough Public Library at Work with Schools." ALA Bulletin, July, 1965. pp. 649-52.

109. Vainstein, R.
"1960 Highlights in Public Library Service to Business." Library Journal, March 1, 1961. pp. 950-4.

110. Valz, Michzlle R.
"The Interstate Library Compact." Library Journal, May 15, 1966. pp. 2419-22.

111. Vosper, R. G.
"Librarians' Expanding Community." New York Library Association Bulletin, October, 1965. pp. 89-94.

112. "The War on Poverty." Library Journal, September 15, 1964. pp. 3239-13, 3376-89.

113. "The War on Poverty." Wilson Library Bulletin, June,1964. pp. 833-54, 866.

114. Wendell, Mitchell.
"An Interstate Compact for Libraries." ALA Bulletin, February, 1964. pp. 132-34.

115. Wheeler, Joseph L., and Goldhor, Herbert.
Practical Administration of Public Libraries. New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

116. White, Ruth M.,(Ed.)
Library Service to an Aging Population. The Public Library Reporter No. 10. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960.

117. White, Ruth M.
The School-Housed Public Library. The Public Library Reporter, No. 11. Chicago: American Library Association, 1963.

118. Wilson Library Bulletin. "A Kaleidoscopic View of Library Research," May, 1967. pp. 896-949.

119. Wilson Library Bulletin.
"Interlibrary Cooperation in California,"
"Interlibrary Cooperation in Oklahoma,"
"Interlibrary Cooperation in Missouri,"
October, 1965. pp. 157-171.

120. Winnick, Pauline,(Ed.)
"Time for Self Renewal." Library Journal, January 15, 1966. pp. 317-53.

121. Wolff, B. H.
"Promoting Library Service for Blind Readers." Bookmark, December, 1964. pp. 61-5

122. Wynn, B. L.
"Information Unlimited." News Notes of California Librarians, Summer, 1963. pp. 315-34.

123. "Your Library is the Master Plan for Public Libraries." News Notes of California Libraries, Summer, 1964. pp 285-407.

124. Yungmeyer, Elinor.
"Cooperation in Action." ALA Bulletin, September,1966. pp. 733-44.